DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 321 016 CE 052 299

AUTHOR	Wells, Betty L.
TITLE	Working with Our Publics. In-Service Education for Cooperative Extension. Module 5. Working with Groups and Organizations.
INSTITUTION	North Carolina State Agricultural Extension Service, Raleigh.; North Carolina State Univ., Raleigh. Dept. of Adult and Community Coll. Education.
SPONS AGENCY	Kellogg Foundation, Battle Creek, Mich.
PUB DATE	88
NOTE	214p.; For related modules, see CE 052 295-301.
AVAILABLE FROM	Dept. of Adult and Community College Education, North Carolina State University, Campus Box 7607, Raleigh, NC 27695-7607.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC09 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Education; Behavioral Objectives; *Extension Agents; *Extension Education; *Group Dynamics; *Inservice Education; Instructional Materials; Interpersonal Communication; Learning Modules; *Networks; *Organizations (Groups); Teaching Guides; Workshops
IDENTIFIERS	*Cooperative Extension Service

ABSTRACT

This module is the fifth in an inservice education series for extension professionals that consists of seven independent training modules. Its purpose is to provide the conceptual foundation and practical skills needed to work effectively with groups and organizations. Five units cover networking, communicating one-to-one, moving up and down and in and out through groups, making sense of organizations, and facilitating interorganizational relations. The 18-hour module consists of four major parts. The sourcebook includes a concise, readable synopsis of the content, purpose and basic assumptions, a selected annotated bibliography (26 items), and a list of 100 references. The leader's guide provides step-by-step instructions on how to conduct the workshop and suggestions for use of the other parts. Preliminary and follow-up activities are described, as well as those to take place during the workshop. Instructions for each of the five units are organized into two parts: a preparation page and a sequential guide for presenting the materials. The learner's packet includes, for each unit, an introduction, self-assessment instrument, worksheets, case studies, and TIP (Theory in Practice) sheets--one- or two-page how-tos. The last section lists instructional aids--a videotape, slides, and a game package--and provides masters for producing overhead transparencies. (YLB)

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Working With Our Publics

In-Service Education for Cooperative Extension

Module 5
Working With Groups and Organizations

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Published by the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service
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Foreword

Welcome to *Working With Our Publics: In-Service Education for Cooperative Extension.* Those who have been involved in developing this project look forward to your participation as a way of bringing it full circle—back to the state and county Extension educators whose requests for help in their changing professional roles initiated the materials you are working with today.

This in-service education series has been supported by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, ECOP, the ECOP Subcommittee on Personnel and Program Development, ES-USDA, and all of the state and territorial Extension services and their directors. Each of these groups hopes you find the training a rewarding and enjoyable experience.

Working With Our Publics was made possible through its many supporters and participants, a few of whom are mentioned here. Initial support by Mary Nell Greenwood was crucial, as has been the continuing involvement of Administrator Myron Johnsrud. The ECOP Subcommittee on Personnel and Program Development has guided every step of the project. M. Randall Barnett, Terry L. Gibson, W. Robert Lovan, Ronald C. Powers, and Leodrey Williams deserve special mention, as does Connie McKenna, whose untold hours of work and miles of travel made sure it all fell into place.

The expertise, leadership, proficiency, and hours of work devoted to the project by the developers of the seven modules—David R. Sanderson, Richard T. Liles and R. David Mustian, Lee J. Cary and Jack D. Timmons, Laverne B. Forest, Betty L. Wells, Verne W. House and Ardis A. Young, and J. David Deshler, respectively—brought it all together.

It is obvious that *Working With Our Publics* would not have come into being without the financial support of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. What may not be so immediately obvious is the continuing interest, support, and dialogue provided by the Foundation through its president, Norman A. Brown.

The many state and county Extension professionals who took part in this project as writers, researchers, reviewers, and field test participants in the individual modules are gratefully acknowledged.

As project leader, I would like to acknowledge here the support given to the entire series by North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service Director Chester D. Black. Grateful recognition is given to a long-time colleague and collaborator in many writing projects, Adele P. Covington, who was principal editor for the series. Valuable contributions to the development were made by Joan Wright (California), Lee Hoffman (Washington, D.C.), Brian Findsen (New Zealand), Heriberto Martinez (Puerto Rico), and in the later phases by Janice L. Hastings (New Hampshire), Jo Jones (Ohio), John M. Pettitt, John G. Richardson, and Frank J. Smith (North Carolina). David M. Jenkins, Department Head, and the staff of North Carolina State University's Department of Agricultural Communications deserve special thanks for their outstanding performance in publishing the modules.

Working With Our Publics is designed to increase your knowledge and skills for work with your changing clientele in today's social environment. It also will help you, as a member of the Extension team, to work with the imperative issues facing the Cooperative Extension System, as well as to expand those skills as an Extension educator that are a necessary complement to your other technical and administrative roles.

If you are new to the practice of Extension, we hope that you will view these training materials as a greeting and a gesture of support from those who have gone before you. If you are an experienced Extension educator, we hope that you will enjoy this "literary conver-

sation" with your peers. In either case, we are confident that you will find the information and activities presented here to be timely, stimulating, and practical. After all, they were developed by Extension educators!

Edgar J. Boone, Project Director

Assistant Director, North Carolina
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Head, Department of Adult and
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Overview of the Series

The series *Working With Our Publics: In-Service Education for Cooperative Extension* consists of seven independent training modules. Based upon needs and objectives identified by Extension professionals, the modules are designed to stand on their own as independent instructional packages, or to be used as a comprehensive series. Very briefly, the modules and their authors are:

Module 1: Understanding Cooperative Extension. The history, mission, values, and networks that make the Cooperative Extension System and the land-grant institutions unique. Participants will examine their own expectations, values, and skills, in light of the System's needs, to ensure a good "fit" between the individual and the organization. (Nine contact hours of training developed by David R. Sanderson, University of Maine at Orono.)

Module 2: The Extension Education Process. An introduction to, and guided practice in, the premises, concepts, and processes of nonformal Extension education—planning, designing and implementing, and evaluating and accounting for Extension education programs. Both new and experienced staff members who complete this module will understand and be able to apply the programming process as it relates to Extension education. (Twenty-four contact hours of training developed by Richard T. Liles and R. David Mustian, North Carolina State University at Raleigh.)

Module 3: Developing Leadership. How to acquire and exercise leadership skills and how to identify, recruit, develop, and work with community leaders. Intended for all Extension professionals, the module is designed to improve participants' abilities to identify and involve lay leaders in Extension programs and, hence, to develop leadership capabilities among Extension's clientele. (Twelve contact hours of training developed by Lee J. Cary and Jack D. Timmons, University of Missouri at Columbia.)

Module 4: Situational Analysis. How to determine the need for the Extension educator's involvement in issues and to understand the economic, social, political, and environmental contexts in planning, designing, and implementing programs. This module is designed to provide both new and experienced Extension staff members with an appreciation of the role that analysis plays in programming and decisionmaking, as well as the skills to identify, collect, analyze, and use relevant data in the Extension education effort. (Twelve contact hours of training developed by Laverne B. Forest, University of Wisconsin–Madison.)

Module 5: Working With Groups and Organizations. Development of skills in working with and through groups and understanding the behavior of groups, organizations, and agencies. New and experienced staff members who participate in this training will be better able to analyze the behavior of individuals, groups, organizations, and governmental agencies. They will gain the skills to build mutually beneficial working relationships, and to deal with networks of influence and key power actors in client communities. (Eighteen contact hours of training developed by Betty L. Wells, Iowa State University.)

Module 6: Education for Public Decisions. In-service education in analyzing public problems, anticipating the consequences of Extension's involvement in issues, and working effectively in areas of controversy. Personnel who play a part in deciding Extension's involvement will build the knowledge and skills needed to design, deliver, and evaluate educational programs on public issues. (Eighteen contact hours of training developed by Verne W. House, Montana State University, and Ardis A. Young, Washington State University.)

Module 7: Techniques for Futures Perspectives. Information and exercises on working with Extension's publics to

achieve a proactive stance toward the future through projecting future conditions, analyzing trends, and inventing futures. All participants, particularly those with a background of field experience, will benefit from enhanced capabilities to develop and provide educational programming that helps clients carry out systematic planning for the future. (Twelve contact hours of training developed by J. David Deshler, Cornell University.)

How to Use This Module

This module consists of four major parts, separated into sections in this notebook. Workshop leaders are urged to become thoroughly familiar with each of these parts well before they schedule training.

Sourcebook. The Sourcebook includes a concise, readable synopsis of the Module's content, the purpose and basic assumptions of the Module, and a Selected Annotated Bibliography. Separately bound copies of the Sourcebook are available for workshop learners. They may be used as preliminary readings or as follow-up materials after the learners have completed the workshop.

Leader's Guide. The Leader's Guide provides step-by-step instructions on how to conduct the workshop. Preliminary and follow-up activities are described, as well as those to take place during the workshop.

Learners' Packet. All materials, other than the Sourcebook, that are intended for distribution to the learners are included in the Learners' Packet. Additional copies may be purchased from the publishers or reproduced locally. Suggestions for when these materials should be used are in the Leader's Guide.

Instructional Aids. The Instructional Aids include a videotape, slides, posters, a game package, and masters for producing overhead transparencies. Suggestions about when to use the various aids are included in the Leader's Guide.

Edgar J. Boone, Project Director

Acknowledgments

Thanks for their contributions to this Module go first to the team members with whom I worked: Amy Deibert, Tom Hoban, Mike Jessup, Ann Krush, Judy Linneman, and Robin Ryerson. My second debt is to Connie McKenna and Lee Hoffman for their timely support and substantive contributions. Finally, I would like to acknowledge the institutional support afforded by the ISU Extension Service, and the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at Iowa State University.

Betty L. Wells
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Sourcebook

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Published by the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service
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Orientation and Overview: Module 5

The purpose of **Module 5: Working With Groups and Organizations** is to provide the conceptual foundation and practical skills that Extension staff need to work effectively with groups and organizations. It is hard to imagine a task more fundamental or more central to Extension's mission.

Obviously, attending 18 hours of in-service education will not fully form an effective group worker. The experience and knowledge required far exceed the time available. Thus, the content of Module 5 is necessarily selective and reflects the "collective wisdom" of the Project Team. We begin by sharing the assumptions that guided this selection, discussing our theoretical foundation, and presenting our method of organizing the content.

Assumptions

Three assumptions guided our selection of content. First, we assume that our goal is to work *with* groups and organizations, not do things *to them* (controlling) or *for them* (fixing). Taking the title of this module literally implies that our role is to *facilitate* group process. This work may be nearly invisible (Snider, 1985). To paraphrase Lao Tsu Ching (Heider, 1985, p. 33), we hope that when the task is done, the people will say, "We have done it ourselves." In Extension, we say our goal is "helping people to help themselves."

Our group work is locally grounded, consistent with a "grass roots" philosophy that respects local needs and knowledge. Extension clientele and Extension staff alike possess a wealth of knowledge about working with groups—hardly surprising since we human beings have been living and working in groups for thousands of years! This "indigenous" knowledge grows from experience and is reflected in folk wisdom or common sense (Warren and Meehan, 1980).

Our second assumption is that learning is a process of interaction, even more so in the case of group work. Learning springs from interaction between leader and learner and between learner and learner.

Our third assumption is that effective group work requires conceptual knowledge and practical methodology. They are interdependent, two sides of the same coin. If something works in theory but not in practice, one or the other needs adjusting. One exception [tongue-in-cheek] is the Extension worker demonstrating the advantages of cement sidewalks (Spiegel, 1979, p. 30):

> He was on his knees, putting the finishing touches on the still wet section of sidewalk by smoothing out the settling cement, when half a dozen children ran barefooted across his newly fashioned sidewalk. "I like children," he grumbled to himself, "in the abstract, but not in the concrete."

Valid theories systematize what happens in the real world. They provide a framework against which we can predict the outcomes of our actions. Theories must be tested against experience and by being put to practice.

Theoretical Grounding

We draw freely from numerous theoretical perspectives. We rely most heavily on systems theory, exchange theory, and a variation called resource dependence.

Organizations survive by exchanging resources in transactions with their environments (Pfeffer and Salancek, 1978). This exchange is shaped by culture: shared meanings, norms (social definitions of acceptable behavior), values (basic convictions and beliefs), and laws that have been developed over time. Extension's dependence on the external environment for critical resources has numerous implications, as we will see in subsequent units.

Organization of Content

The network is a metaphor that captures our theoretical orientation. Extension can benefit greatly from developing a conceptual and practical knowledge of networking. We use the networking perspective to organize our content.

Patton (1986, p. 17) speaks of Extension's unique network position:

> Extension, more than any other organization in modern and future society, sits at the center between the government sector, the public nonprofit sector, the private nonprofit sector, and the private business sector.

Through a system of county offices, Extension is embedded more firmly in the fabric of this nation than is any other educational organization. Whether this level of decentralization is a constraint or an opportunity ultimately depends on how each Extension worker manages his or her own system of interdependence.

Unit I of Module 5 is an in-depth look at the patterns of connections called *networks* and the process called *networking*. Unit II is focused on the most elementary and important relationship in a network, the *interpersonal connection*. *The small group*, a small bounded network, is introduced in Unit III. The *organization*, a unit much more complex than the group, is the focus in Unit IV. In Unit V, we explore *interorganizational relations* as a special application of networking.

Unit I: Networking

Networking is a process of acquiring resources or building power by using or creating linkages between two or more people, groups, or organizations. It provides a valuable tool for getting things done, and provides a world view that lets us better understand the complexity and the interdependence of everyday life. Thus, a knowledge of networks and the networking process is both important to Extension and an essential skill for the Extension worker. The Extension staff member, as network facilitator or boundary spanner, plays an increasingly critical role in the organization.

Although we network every day without even thinking about it, networking is more effective when it is purposeful. In Unit I, we look first at the "nuts and bolts" of networks and then some guidelines for the networking process, beginning with understanding and interpretation, and moving to strategy and application.

"Nuts and Bolts"

The network is a powerful organizing metaphor and analytical tool. In everyday usage, a network is simply an informal, personal set of connections. Translated into academic jargon, a *network* is a system of exchange between three or more social units (people, groups, and organizations). Two units are more appropriately called a *dyad*, not a network.

Anthropologist Virginia Hine called networks the oldest social invention (McInnis, 1984). Mueller (1986, p. 14) writes that centuries ago, the British lexicographer, Dr. Samuel Johnson, defined a network as "anything reticulated and decussated at equal distances, with interstices at the intersections." In fairness to Johnson, networks *are* complex. And, of course, society has become more complex since Johnson's day, and has achieved an unparalleled level of interconnectedness. As a consequence of the information age, we live in a global village.

Transaction versus Similarity Networks

In networks, do "birds of a feather flock together?" or do "opposites attract?" In fact, both occur. Over 30 years ago, the social psychologist, Theodore Newcombe, set forth some principles of interpersonal attraction (Fisher, 1982, p. 194):

1. We like people who like us.
2. We like people who are like us.
3. We like people who complement our strengths and weaknesses.
4. We like people with whom we are in close proximity.

These principles apply to networking as well, and to a basic distinction between different types of networks.

In *similarity networks*, people interact because they are *alike*—similar in age, profession, religion, or some other way. Extension's similarity networks include professional associations, such as the National Home Economics Association, and honorary groups, such as Epsilon Sigma Phi. We do like people who are like us. "Birds of a feather" do flock together. Shared purpose is a powerful bond. An effective way to increase cooperation is to emphasize common interests.

In *transaction networks*, people interact because they are *different*. Transaction networks are based on an explicit resource exchange, such as between Extension worker and client. Such networks are built on complementary relations. We do, indeed, like people who complement our strengths and weaknesses. Opposites do attract.

The information revolution has freed us from the constraints of geography. Proximity is convenient but no longer essential. Rogers and Kincaid (1981, p. 301) perhaps sum it up best: "Everything else

being equal, people form network links that require the least effort and that are the most rewarding."

Formal versus Informal Networks

Networking sometimes is equated with only informal (also known as lateral or horizontal) resource flows. As resource brokers, Extension professionals must attend to formal and informal networks.

In *formal networks,* information and other resources tend to flow vertically—usually from the top down—as in an organizational chart of an organization, or in the "power structure" of a community. In contrast, in *informal networks,* resources are more likely to flow laterally. Informal networks exist in organizations and communities. Since there are more contacts, power is more diffuse. Informal networks are rich sources of information, arguably Extension's most valued resource. We can keep our ears tuned to the "grapevine," whether in the local cafe, barbershop, or County Extension office, and use it to test ideas and build consensus. The power of informal networks remains latent, unless tapped and mobilized.

Power and Other Resources

Resources are the "stuff" exchanged during networking. *Tangible resources* literally can be touched. People, equipment, land, and buildings come to mind. Intangible resources are untouchable and include time, information, energy, legitimation, and support. Of course, this system of classification is not perfect. In the case of money, currency and coins can be touched, but are generally of value for the "stuff" that they can buy. With the gold standard, money was more tangible. Money is becoming increasingly intangible, much like information.

Through networking, we build *power:* the ability to do or to command resources. Power is the most basic resource. Three types of power are exercised in networks: positional, personal, and interpersonal.

Positional power, sometimes called authority, is scarce, and can be depleted. It springs from one's ability to dominate or control another person (Dahl, 1956; Macy, 1983). As the name implies, positional power is vested in the position a person occupies.

Personal power (French, 1985) springs from the ability to act, or from having personal qualities that others value, such as expertise. If all actions generate power, then all people who are willing to take action have power.

Interpersonal power springs from connections with others (Macy, 1983). All interactions are thus power equations (Hawley et al., 1963). If actions and interactions generate power, then networks are collections of power. Consequently, interpersonal power is abundant and widely distributed. Furthermore, sharing power increases, rather than diminishes, the total power available (Varney, 1987). Complementary relationships, by eliminating duplication of skills, maximize power. Transaction networks operate by this principle.

Principles

Four principles are useful in guiding networkers. The first principle is reciprocity; the second, spannability; the third, complementarity; and the fourth, intentionality.

Networks are governed by the "*norm of reciprocity,*" which means that, over the "long haul," a system of fair trade will prevail. This norm is reflected in many folk sayings: "tit for tat," "you scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours," "do unto others," and the like. It is reflected in both formal laws and protocol, as well as informal values, norms, and customs.

The second principle, *spannability,* refers to how networking allows us to reach beyond our immediate circle of

contacts to a greatly expanded sphere, which includes contacts of contacts.

Networkers also take advantage of a related principle, "*the strength of weak ties.*" This phrase, coined by Granovetter (1973), means that long-distance contacts may provide returns that exceed the time invested in them. Strong ties that tend to exist among friends, kin, and work associates, by virtue of their similarity, are less likely to be the sources of new information. For example, one way to find a job is to ask your friends to ask *their* friends if they know of a suitable job. This way, you tap into information systems that differ from those normally available (Kadushin, 1983).

To apply the third principle, *complementarity,* first assess your strengths and weaknesses; then, connect with a partner who has strengths to match your weaknesses, and vice versa. This principle builds on interpersonal power. Through minimizing duplication of skills and matching weakness with strength, we maximize power.

The fourth, and final, principle is *intentionality.* Intentionality simply means that networking is most effective when purposeful.

Working Networks

Networks can be used to acquire any resource. Networkers always know what resources they need and what they can offer in exchange. They may collect on debts owed for some past favor or transaction. Repayment eventually occurs, if the relationship is to continue.

Roles

Networks can be described in a variety of ways. An understanding of network roles is especially useful for practitioners. The most fundamental role is the *central figure,* or star. In interpreting networks in a neighborhood, for example, we may find social support networks dominated by a central figure, or natural neighbor (Collins and Pancoast, 1976, cited by Bulmer, 1987). Central figures have the psychic resources needed to "stay on top" of their own situation, and to give and respond to others. They may belong to an occupation that predisposes them to be "natural helpers." Natural helping networks are increasingly viewed as a vital adjunct to professional social work. In a similar way, Extension professionals in Iowa joined forces with "peer helpers" to provide assistance to people who were most seriously affected during the farm crisis.

Boundary spanners are people, groups, or organizations that connect two networks, thus facilitating the flow of information, technology, or some other resource. *Isolates,* on the other hand, play a role distinguished by few ties.

The two roles that Extension staff members fill in networks are the *boundary spanning* role and the *facilitating* role. The latter role is discussed in detail in Unit V.

Know the Flow

Networkers must understand networks. In the case of networks to which we do not belong, research may be needed. Research provides a map for maneuvering unknown terrain. Systematic analysis can reveal new paths from one place to another. Or, it can reveal informal, but powerful, groups and clusters of people and organizations that can help us or hinder us. Obviously, a map is not needed to guide us on roads we travel every day. By using our eyes and our ears, we can understand networks to which we belong.

A gap often exists between network research and application. Typically, researchers try to understand and explain networks, whereas practitioners want to use or create networks to accomplish a purpose. The practice of networking has proceeded largely unhindered and barely affected by network research. When

researchers and practitioners work together, this gulf can be bridged.

In California, James Grieshop, Extension Community Education Specialist, and his colleague, Frank Zalom, an Integrated Pest Management Specialist, discovered, while investigating why some farmers were not using integrated pest management, that small groups of Japanese vegetable growers tended to rely more on kinship and friendship networks for information than on Extension. This network research demonstrates the value of understanding networks of which we are not a part. It is also an excellent example of bridging research and practice.

Develop Strategy

Once understood, a practical networking strategy is needed to obtain the resources you need.

Anchor. Always begin by "anchoring" the person whom you want to influence or whose situation you want to interpret. This person is the central figure or star of the network. This star may be you, if your needs are the focus of networking. Or, it may be another person—a group member you wish to recruit, a client you would like to influence, or an influential whose backing you need. In the first case, you will be working the network from the inside/out; in the second case, from the outside/in.

Show the Flow. Accept the advice of mathematicians, and draw a picture of the network. Abstract patterns and resource flows become tangible when we can see them. *Direct contacts* are personal acquaintances who are sources of the needed resource, or provide you the name of someone else who might help you, which would be an *indirect contact*. Indirect contacts may or may not be of assistance. This process can expand indefinitely from secondary to tertiary sources, and so on.

Resources

We will discuss briefly three types of resources: *information, legitimacy,* and *group members.*

Information. We have already suggested that information may be Extension's most valued resource. Access to current research-based knowledge distinguishes Extension from many of its competitors, but Extension professionals do more than simply disseminate research. They are information brokers who facilitate the two-way flow of information.

Legitimacy. Suppose you are seeking support for a new program. You may initially use formal (vertical) networks to obtain support within Extension, and, later, make one-to-one contacts with community power actors. Through personal networks (Perrucci and Pilusuk, 1970) and interorganizational networks (Laumann et al., 1978), these power actors can mobilize support (or opposition) for the program. You also can use informal networks by "sounding out" ideas with Extension colleagues.

Group members. Or, let us assume that an Extension professional needs to find group members for a new 4-H and Youth Club. This is a situation for working the network from the outside/in. After deciding what resources are needed and sketching a network that will give the Extension educator access to those resources, the next steps are to ask for help; listen to the response; and express appreciation for the person's time. Networking personalizes requests for assistance, thus recognizing the individual's motivation in helping you.

An example familiar to many states is that of Iowa, in which the state legislature asked the state Extension service to help address the farm crisis through taking action, such as forming community resource committees and personal support groups (Molgaard, 1986). This mandate required establishing many and varied groups in a short period of

time. A variety of groups resulted, which reflected the different networks in each locale.

Summary of Networking

Networking can make life easier. Networking allows us to give a little and gain a lot. Information equals power, but only if it is shared. Through understanding and practicing networking, we can greatly expand our resource base and develop our own social support base to draw upon, as needed.

Unit II. Communicating One-to-One

Before proceeding, we would like to clarify the concept of Unit II. The project team deliberately chose the title "Communicating One-to-One," as opposed to the more commonly used phrase, "one-on-one." In our opinion, one-to-one implies equivalence, partnership, and one person standing next to the other. This meaning seems more compatible with the facilitative philosophy of Module 5 than the phrase one-on-one, which conveys the impression of one person on top of another, or dominating another. One-on-one also has an intensely competitive connotation. While some may dismiss this distinction as merely semantic, we believe it is a distinction in meaning of vital importance to the content of this Module.

The power of Extension's network lies in strong interpersonal connections. Effective communication is the surest way to maintain these linkages. Unproductive relationships can be strengthened (or abandoned) through improved communication. If "a chain is only as strong as its weakest link," then every Extension educator must communicate effectively.

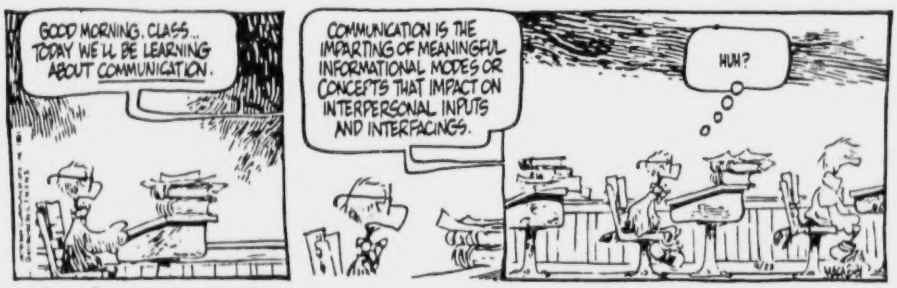
We spend 75 percent of our waking time communicating: listening, speaking, reading, or writing (Ross, 1983). It is hard to imagine a more critical skill.

Definitions of communication are abundant and often complex. In Unit II, we will focus on two dimensions of communication: (1) sensitivity to others and (2) assertion of needs and limits. We will see how relative degrees of sensitivity and assertion combine to form four distinctly interactive communication styles. We conclude with two specific applications—"positive confrontation" (constructive criticism) and "taking the heat" (constructive handling of criticism).

Sensitive Communication

Sensitive communicators are skilled at receiving messages. They use their senses of sight, hearing, and touch. They are empathetic, even intuitive; are able to put themselves in the place of others. Sensitive people are like open doors. Unfortunately, many of us are more like closed doors, blocking communication by judging, solving, and avoiding (Bolton, 1979, borrowing from Gordon, 1970).

We open doors when we are genuine, fair, tolerant, and forgiving. Genuine people are self-aware, self-accepting, and self-expressing (Bolton, 1979). They spontaneously share thoughts and feelings. People who are fair tend to be honest, trustworthy, and reliable. Tolerant people are courteous, respectful, and accepting. They know that acceptance does not mean agreement. People who are forgiving are able to accept others' shortcomings and let "bygones be bygones."


GOOD MORNING, CLASS... TODAY WE'LL BE LEARNING ABOUT COMMUNICATION.
COMMUNICATION IS THE IMPARTING OF MEANINGFUL INFORMATIONAL MODES OR CONCEPTS THAT IMPACT ON INTERPERSONAL INPUTS AND INTERFACINGS.
HUH?
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Stop, Look, and Listen

To increase sensitivity, follow the same instructions given children as they learn to cross the street: stop, look, and listen. *Stop* talking and pay attention. *Look* at the other person, because appearances may tell more than words alone. And *listen!*

About one-half of all total time communicating is spent listening. The remainder is spent, in order, speaking, 35 percent; reading, 10 percent; and writing, 5 percent (Ross, 1983). Yet, we take listening for granted, and devote by far the least time to building listening skills.

Recent estimates suggest that U.S. industry could save as much as $3 billion a year by simply listening. No wonder so many management texts stress listening to customers and employees. In Extension, listening improves our relationships with colleagues, administrators, support staff, and families, as well as our clientele. A grass-roots organization, such as Extension, survives by listening. Sensitive communicators pay attention not only to what people say, but also to how they say it and what they look like when they say it.

What Others Say. Some research suggests that as little as 7 to 15 percent of what people communicate is with words (Mehrabian, 1968; Bolton, 1979). While these figures are debatable, there is certainly more in a message than the factual content of the words.

How They Say It. In addition to words, we hear tone. Tone accounts for about 40 percent of what people communicate. Silence, volume, intensity, pitch, and rate of speech all convey meaning. Discongruence is readily apparent: "It is not *what* you said, it's *how* you said it."

What They Look Like When They Say It. About one-half of what people communicate is nonverbal (Ross, 1983), which supports the saying, "Actions speak louder than words." When what people *say* disagrees with how they *look,* appearances are most likely to be believed. Despite the saying, "You can't judge a book by its cover," first impressions are usually conveyed nonverbally. First impressions are especially important, because Extension must increasingly compete with the visual media. Our clients have become accustomed to *watching* television (not listening).

Gestures, posture, facial expression, clothing, and eye contact all convey information about a person. The face is the most important source of information about emotions. Eye contact can show power and confidence, but, when excessive, also can intrude and make the other person feel uncomfortable.

Distance between speakers is revealing. Although appropriate distance is culturally defined, the more powerful person usually controls the physical space (Hall, 1972).

Active Listening

Active listening implies that, to "listen," we use not only our ears, but our voice, eyes, and body language. Active listening reassures the speaker that we are paying attention.

Three basic techniques of active listening—minimal encouragers, open questions, and reflection—are easy to learn. *Minimal encouragers* are short phrases, such as "Eh?" or "And then what happened?" *Open questions* not easily answered with a "yes" or "no" or another short, specific answer, keep the conversation going. Closed questions typically begin with "do" or "are" or "is." "Why" questions are closed, if the "why" implies judgment or criticism.

Reflection is a response that demonstrates acceptance and understanding of a message's meaning (Bolton, 1979). While paraphrasing captures the essence of the *content* of the message, reflection succinctly captures the speaker's *feelings* and *content.* To reflect, focus on feeling words, observe

body language, and ask, "If I were in his or her shoes, what would I be *feeling?*"

The effectiveness of each technique is enhanced by eye contact, a forward-leaning orientation, and, when appropriate, touch.

Assertive Communication

Assertive communication is honest, direct, and to the point, as well as immediate (Butler, 1981). Assertion is used both to initiate (get what you want) and to set limits (not get what you do not want).

Assertive behavior is distinct from either passive or aggressive behavior (Butler, 1981). Passive behavior includes silence or shrugging off behavior that is personally offensive. Aggressive behavior involves overreacting or attacking, including labeling or moralizing.

Initiating: Getting What You Want

Assertive communicators speak for themselves by stating both their needs and limits with "I"-messages. Standard construction of an "I"-message is: FEELINGS + BEHAVIOR + EFFECT. For example: "I get upset when you interrupt me during meetings, because it detracts from the points I am trying to make."

Assertive communicators reinforce their verbal message with nonverbals. They avoid "door closers," such as judging and solving. They use the minimum strength needed to convey their message, starting with a quiet assertion of their position and escalating the strength of their language and tone of voice only when the original message is not being understood.

Limit Setting: Not Getting What You Do Not Want

Just as we assert our needs to "getting what we want," we also assert our limits to "not getting what we don't want." Judicious limit setting minimizes the wear-and-tear on our personal and professional lives, ultimately making us more productive. Meeting the needs of others must be balanced with our own needs and limits. When "helping out" detracts from our professional goals, we must say "no," and make it stick. Do not use excuses that shift the responsibility to another person or situation, because these may give the requester leverage to change your mind.

Unfair exchanges may prompt us to say "no." As we saw in Unit I, a norm of reciprocity or fair trade governs networks. When the costs are excessive for any one player, or when the rewards do not justify the effort, the linkages may be limited or abandoned.

Information overload also may require setting limits. In an information age and in an information organization, such as Extension, we can become quite overwhelmed. Every connection takes time and energy to maintain. Our networks have a synergism that can expand rapidly, and surpass our ability to maintain them. A wise choice may be selective setting of limits and priorities.

Communication Styles

People have variable degrees of both sensitivity and assertiveness. High and low assertion, and high and low sensitivity, combine to form one of four styles (Merrill and Reid, 1981; Bolton and Bolton, 1984):

1. Stoics: combine strong, emotional self-control with relatively little assertiveness. Tend to be well-organized, systematic, precise, objective, and able to evaluate much information.

2. Amiables: combine marked sensitivity with less assertiveness. Usually are trusting and sensitive to the thoughts and feeling of others.

3. Drivers: combine marked assertiveness and strong emotional self-control. Usually are task-oriented, decisive, pragmatic, and competitive.

4. Expressives: combine marked assertiveness and strong emotional expression. Are flamboyant, spontaneous, with a keen sense of humor. Usually are creative and able to inspire others.

Recognizing these styles in others facilitates interpersonal communication and group work.

While the power of such a model comes from its simplicity, the people whose behavior it explains are infinitely more complex. Beware of "shrinking people to fit" a category (Bolton and Bolton, 1984). Evaluate the model by practical results. In other words, does it work?

Constructive Confrontation

Constructive confrontation is a planned one-to-one discussion of another person's actions with which you are uncomfortable. Confrontation requires assertion and sensitivity. When your message is acknowledged, "get on with it"—forgive and forget.

Now and then *you* will be confronted or criticized, sometimes fairly, sometimes not. We never will like criticism, but we can "take the heat" constructively. The basic steps in "taking the heat" constructively are to listen to the criticism without reacting emotionally, to appreciate the validity of the critic's words, and to respond in a sensitive and nondefensive manner—especially if we disagree (Weisinger and Lobsenz, 1981).

Summary of Communicating One-to-One

Assertive and sensitive communication work best together. Assertive people are sensitive to their own needs and thus able to be sensitive to others' needs.

When people are asked how they wish to be treated, their answers are similar (Bolton and Bolton, 1984): with honesty, fairness, and respect, which includes acceptance and courtesy. In his investigations of cooperation, Axelrod (1984) found that more successful interactive strategies were generally more predictable, straightforward, provocable (assertive), and forgiving. Following such guidelines can only strengthen our work with groups and organizations.

Unit III. Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Groups are three or more persons interacting to achieve a goal. Groups have enormous *social power.* Groups have *power over* members and the *power to* support members. Groups are the link among people and organizations and social institutions. In groups, people can take chances that would be too risky to take alone, thus sparking innovative change.

Groups become more complex as the numbers of members increase. In a three-person group, there are three possible two-person relationships, and one three-person relationship, which gives credence to the saying, "Two's company, three's a crowd." In a four-person group, there are 11 potential combinations: 6 possible two-person relationships, 4 possible three-person relationships, plus a four-person relationship.

Groups can have synergy created when the combined effects of cooperation between two or more persons produce an effect that exceeds the sum of what the individual members could do alone (Corning and Corning, 1986). Groups also can be an arena for social "loafing," with individuals accomplishing far less than they could working alone (Latane et al., 1979; Jackson and Harkins, 1985). In a frequently cited study, Ringelman reported that the rate of individual effort at rope pulling decreases as group size increases (Latane etal., 1979). Groups must balance the potential for synergy with the reality of social loafing.

Effective group work is a balancing act in many ways. Every group must balance teamwork with taskwork, a distinction made by nearly all group workers. *Teamwork* (sometimes called group maintenance) focuses on the way people interact, the interpersonal process. *Taskwork* is goal-oriented, and focuses on the problem-solving process. Many diagnostic tools are available to assess one's inclination toward either team or task behavior. Effective groups also balance too much cohesion with too little cohesion, and too much risk with too little risk, as well as the needs of the individual with the needs of the group, and the needs of the minority with the needs of the majority.

In Unit III, we will first address five sequential phases through which all groups tend to pass. Then, we will turn to the process of facilitating a group's progression through these phases.

Group Phases: Knowing the Flow

Many group theorists and practitioners have observed a natural ebb and flow in most groups. They see groups developing in a series of stages or phases. Wanos et al. (1984) provide an overview of five models of group development.

The model we favor is that which Tuckman and Jensen (1977) call forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. We substitute "transforming" for "adjourning" as descriptive of a larger number of groups. Each phase has characteristic processes and somewhat predictable problems to challenge facilitators. A knowledge of group phases and what to expect in each can greatly facilitate Extension's group work.

Forming

At the *forming* stage, a group is a simple aggregation of individuals. Team and task needs are numerous: getting acquainted, defining roles, selecting a decisionmaking method, constructing agendas, and setting goals. The mood is generally upbeat and a little "uptight," because meeting new people is both exciting and anxiety-producing. Relatively little task progress can be expected.

Getting Acquainted. "Mixers" relieve the anxieties of new group members or persons who are shy about making new acquaintances. Introductory activities can facilitate taskwork, if they are structured to reveal information about members, such as special skills or expertise.

Defining Roles. Expectations for behavior are called *group member* roles. The following list is adapted from Bales (1970), Doyle and Straus (1976), and Wellin (1978).

1. *Idea person*: offers creative and innovative suggestions.

2. *Quality controller:* questions ideas and actions; spots problems.

3. *Doer*: gets things done; knows how things work.

4. *Team builder:* supports group members and builds group morale.

5. *External contact:* provides access to resources outside the group.

6. *Synthesizer:* blends the best ideas into a compatible whole.

7. *Chairperson/leader:* takes charge (formally or informally).

8. *Facilitator:* helps the group with the process of reaching its goal(s).

9. *Recorder/secretary:* serves as the group memory.

Someone needs to play each role, formally or informally. Roles may rotate from one person to another over the life of the group, or even during the course of a meeting. Although several people may play the same role, too many people filling the same role can cause conflict. Try to make roles and norms explicit, by using techniques such as role analysis.

Selecting a Decisionmaking Method. The method of decisionmaking ideally is determined during forming. Of course, decisions must sometimes be made by one member: when time is short, when the matter is routine, when commitment to implement is not in question, and when needed information is readily available. Two alternative models of decisionmaking are *majority rule* or *consensus.*

Majority rule, the most common method, requires agreement by 51 percent of the members of the group (Johnson and Johnson, 1975). Groups that follow parliamentary procedure are using majority rule. Because majority decisions do not require agreement from every member, they are useful when time is limited. Unfortunately, they may leave a disenchanted minority that either has little commitment to implement the decision, or actively works to subvert the decision.

Consensus, the second method of group decisionmaking, involves widespread agreement on the decision. Juries operate by consensus. The strength of the consensus model is decision quality and group "ownership" of the decision, which strengthens commitment to implement. However, reaching consensus takes time and energy, and may result in compromises for which no one has enthusiasm.

In practice, many groups use a mix of consensus and majority rule. Regardless of method, a standard problem-solving sequence tends to occur; i.e.:

1. *Defining the problem:* clarifying the problem through discussion.

2. *Generating alternatives:* proposing plans for managing the problem.

3. *Evaluating and selecting alternatives:* assessing proposals, setting priorities, and choosing the best plan.

4. *Implementing the decision:* putting the plan into action.

5. *Evaluating:* assessing the success or progress of the accepted plan.

What method to use is less important than agreeing on and understanding the procedure beforehand.

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Constructing an Agenda. Regardless of method of decisionmaking, agendas are essential. Agendas let people know what to expect *before* coming to a meeting, thus making meetings shorter and more effective because many procedural questions are settled in advance. Agenda items can be arranged according to the difficulty of the task. Agendas *must* include space for topics from the floor. Of course, agendas are effective only if used and followed.

Setting Goals. Goals provide direction; focus actions; and regulate effort. Goal-setting works (Locke, 1984, p. 6):

> Within the past 15 years, more than 110 goal-setting experiments have been conducted. . . . In 90 percent of these studies, goal setting increased performance significantly. Goal setting is one of the most dependable and robust of all motivational techniques.

Exhortations to "do your best" are too general. Goals must be specific, challenging, realistic, and accepted. Goals, with feedback, can stimulate and sustain behavorial change.

The results of 60 studies of the effects of four major motivational techniques on performance are summarized in Table 1 (Locke, 1984, p. 56). Since monetary incentives are rarely possible in the groups with which Extension works, goal setting is usually the most powerful motivator available.

Storming

Storming brings some "rough sailing." Groups make little task progress; anxiety may increase; and morale may sink. Kuhn (Scheidel and Crowell, 1979) characterizes what occurs in this phase as "essential tension." Learn to anticipate it and welcome it. Facilitators and leaders may reassure members that disagreements are normal. And not only that differences must be expressed, but that they may actually benefit the group. Anticipating storming allows time to develop strategies to manage it.

Conflict may emerge. Group leaders may be challenged. Members may withdraw, temporarily or permanently. Skillful group workers know when to *manage* and when to *resolve* such conflict. Only protracted conflict calls for resolving or mediating disputes. Value clarification exercises can be helpful.

The most important problem-solving process during storming is idea generation. Ideas, distinct from solutions, are the key to group creativity. As Linus Pauling once said, "The best way to get better ideas is to have lots of ideas."

Van Gundy (1984) groups a multitude of idea-generating techniques into two major categories: brainstorming and brainwriting. Brainstorming is the oral generation of ideas, using either an *unstructured* or a *structured* procedure,

Table 1: Performance increase by motivational technique

Motivational technique	Median gain in performance %
Money (individual incentive)	30
Money (group incentive)	20
Goal setting	16
Job enrichment	9
Participation	1

complete with rules (Osborn, 1957). The assumption that structured brainstorming produces more and higher-quality ideas than people working alone has recently been challenged (Weisberg, 1986).

In brainwriting, ideas are written, not spoken. Van Gundy divides brainwriting into two major types: nominal and interactive. In *nominal* brainwriting, ideas are not shared during generation. The nominal group process is the best known technique (Gill and Delbecq, 1982). In *interactive* brainwriting, ideas are shared and modified during generation. The strengths and weaknesses of idea generation techniques are summarized in Table 2.

values are more cohesive. Although cohesiveness does not necessarily lead to increased group productivity, it does reduce *differences* in productivity among members of a work group. Thus, in a cohesive work group, productivity may be expected to increase.

While norming is essential for a group to achieve its goals, potential complications include groupthink, in-group/out-group bias, and task errors. *Groupthink* can occur when cooperation in a cohesive group overrides realistic appraisal of alternate actions (Janis, 1982). Ironically, this "overcooperation" sometimes occurs in reaction to the tension of brainstorming. Group pressure for con-

Table 2. Brainstorming versus brainwriting procedures

Criteria	Brainstorming		Brainwriting	
	Unstructured	Structured	Nominal	Interactive
Idea quantity	Low	Medium	Medium	High
Idea quality	Low	Medium	Medium	High
Conflict potential	High	Medium	Low	Low
Cohesiveness building	High	High	Low	Low
Pressure to conform	High	Medium	Low	Low

Norming

Norming implies that the collection of people has finally "become a group." The norms are cohesive, with clear expectations, identity, and norms. Norms are informal rules that regulate group behavior (Feldman and Arnold, 1983). Norms summarize shared approval (or disapproval) of various behaviors. Norms make it possible to count on certain things being done and other things not being done (Hackman, 1987).

Cohesion is the extent to which members of a group like each other and want to remain in the group (Shaw, 1981, in Feldman and Arnold, 1983). During the selection of new group members, people tend to seek out people like themselves. Work groups with similar tastes and

sensus can be so powerful, and group norms to "get along" so strong, that critical thinking is sacrificed. For example, the norm of group loyalty can result in supporting a policy to which the group is committed, even when that policy is failing, or disturbs the consciences of members. Judgment can deteriorate as a result of group pressure for consensus.

Groupthink may include direct pressure on group members who express doubts about a decision or policy, self-censorship by members to avoid deviating from group consensus, and stereotyping. Self-censorship can take the form of failing to express private doubts ("I must be the only one with doubts"), false assumptions of unanimity ("I don't want to be a naysayer"), or

deference to a high status person ("Well, you're the expert"). Direct pressure is exemplified by the statement, "Don't upset the apple cart." Stereotyping is exemplified by the statement, "That's the way they all are."

Groupthink can be reduced by developing "counternorms," such as airing all doubts, exploring all alternatives, or playing "devil's advocate," or by inviting outsiders to challenge the group. Some groups hold "second-chance" meetings following an important preliminary decision, at which time every member must express any residual doubts before the decision becomes final. Shared or rotating leadership also can minimize groupthink.

Stereotyping is a form of *in-group/out-group bias*, or discrimination in favor of one's own group. To deal with stereotyping requires understanding that people manage complexity by developing categories. This generally useful ability can have negative effects when the "things" categorized are people. Categorizing can lead to a stereotyping—attributing general characteristics of a group to all members of that group. The result can be discrimination, conflict, or even violence. Competition, conflict, or any condition that increases social categorization may allow a group to perceive itself as superior (Brewer, 1979), even though the judgment of group superiority has no objective basis (Sherif, 1958; Tajfel and Turner, 1986).

Categorization can occur *within groups*, whenever some person or persons differ from the majority. Age, racial/ethnic or cultural heritage, gender, handicap, and even profession are some of the bases for categorizing people. The more visible the difference, the more pronounced the categorization. "Different" people face special tensions and problems independent of the particular trait that sets them apart. Kanter and Stein (1980) offer a general theory on "being different" in groups, called the "Tale of 'O'," that helps us understand sterotyping processes.

Stereotyping may be reduced by interacting toward a common goal (Sherif, 1958). Activities that limit in-group/out-group competition, or that bridge and value differences, can minimize or eliminate this bias.

Task errors also are manifested during norming. Poor decisions can result from using faulty information, making faulty assumptions, reaching faulty conclusions, defining the problem poorly, misevaluating consequences, and violating procedures (Gouran and Hirokawa, 1986).

It is vital that the "minority voice" be protected during norming. While dissent is rarely pleasant, it is essential, both for achieving creativity and better decisions. Facilitators should see that minorities, even if only one person, are ensured a voice in the norming process.

"..... AND NOW WE WILL HEAR THE DISSENTING OPINION."

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Performing

Performing, the fourth phase of group development, occurs when group resources are fully mobilized to achieve the goal. At this phase, group members are interdependent and "get down to business." Leaders delegate responsibilities and empower others. "Footdragging," a tool of the uncommitted and powerless, can be a problem. Poor follow-through also can be a problem, sometimes caused by a shortage of "doers" or by a lack of "ownership." The ideal time to address these problems is before they occur.

Transforming

Groups inevitably transform. They may revert to earlier phases. They may regroup, because of member turnover or to tackle a new task. When some members "move on," roles must be redefined. Or, the group may simply disband after accomplishing its task. There is little research to guide us on transforming groups (Mullin, 1987), probably because most small group research uses artificial laboratory groups. Nonetheless, there are some practical tips for both "moving on" and "regrouping."

Moving On. Task accomplishment, or changing priorities, may require breaking off relationships with groups. This is certainly true in Extension wherein group roles are often temporary and there are always other groups with which to work. Letting go can be difficult. There are several reasons why we hold on:

1. *We may fear that the group will fail without us.* This is probably false (we really are not indispensable). If we *are* the only thing preventing collapse, maybe the group has outlived its purpose.

2. *We may fear not being needed* If our role is to facilitate, to work with, then we have *succeeded* when we are no longer needed. Not being needed by one group allows us to move on to where we *are* needed; there is little chance of running out of work!

3. *We may have succumbed to tradition.* ("I have always met with that group.") We may be unaware of this powerful pressure, even as we are overwhelmed with commitments. Being locked into traditional roles reduces the energy available for personal and professional growth in other directions.

4. *The group may resist letting us go.* Group members, unsure of their own capabilities, may have become dependent on us. Or they may see us as "free staff assistance." Learning to rely on their own resources can strengthen group cohesion and commitment.

Graceful exits are best assured by communicating your role from the outset. When organizing a group, decide on your role before convening: whether you will be convener only, convener and leader, convener and group member, convener and facilitator, or whatever. If your role is temporary, set a date for "turning over the reins," and occasionally remind the group of that date. Even if you failed to do so, initially, it is never too late to begin redefining your tenure.

Always consider "how things look" before letting go. You do not want to appear as if your departure discounts the group's importance or demonstrates some displeasure with the group. Rather, your departure should confirm that the group is capable on its own. You may gradually disengage by reducing your level of participation, number of meetings attended, and responsibilities accepted; identifying existing and new leaders (even training your successor); delegating responsibilities to new and emerging leaders; or supporting leader development activities.

Regrouping. Regrouping can occur as a result of member turnover, accomplishment of a significant group goal, or simply "tired blood." In any case, redefining the group's goals and roles is

essential to renew group commitment and vision, to reenergize old members, and to build a sense of ownership and belonging among new members.

If an Extension role requires that you remain in the group, you may choose to redefine your role from that of leader or organizer to technical assistant, adviser, facilitator, or recorder—roles that allow input without domination, or let you work behind the scenes without reinforcing dependency.

Group Phases: Facilitating the Flow

Facilitators help groups to reach their goals. Skill in facilitating group processes is essential for the Extension educator. The facilitating role ranges from an informal activity played at various times by nearly all group members, to an explicitly designated group role, to a highly formal role played by an outsider.

Facilitators free leaders to focus on substantive issues. They help create and then protect the group climate. Group members can serve as facilitators, or professional facilitators can be engaged. Not everyone is able to facilitate. Even skilled facilitators are disqualified, if they are too close to the issue. Parnes (1985) provides an excellent overview of facilitative leadership based on years of experience.

A fine line separates *facilitating* from *manipulating*. Both manipulators and facilitators are people who share an acute sensitivity to situations, a large selection of behavioral options, and an ability to put people at ease (Bolton and Bolton, 1984). Vaill (1985) makes a similar observation. But, while manipulators seek to benefit themselves, facilitators seek to benefit the group. Facilitators have integrity and "ring true." Group facilitators use a variety of activities and tools to accomplish their roles, including structural techniques and diagnostic instruments.

Facilitators help the group maintain a proper balance between the individual and the group. They help protect the minority—one or more persons who hold a dissenting position. Sometimes the facilitator must protect the group from an aberrant individual, i.e., the "difficult" person. Anyone who does group work knows about the "difficult" person: the group's "pain in the neck." This person is defined as difficult by consensual validation, that is, by almost everyone in the group. Facilitators can help groups cope with the difficult person. This ability is an essential skill for Extension educators.

Summary of the Group Development Process

Group work is a balancing act—balancing too much cohesion (groupthink) with too little (conflict), too much risk (risky shift) with too little (stagnation), and the needs of individual members with the needs of the group. Effective group work remains as much an art as a science. Each group has its challenges and its responses, as summarized in Table 3. The rules can be learned, but experience and judgment are required to apply them.

Table 3. Group Development Process

Group Phase	Key Processes	Ups	Down	Leader Behavior
Forming	Orienting			
	Getting acquainted	Meeting new people	Anxiety	Directing
	Setting direction —defining task —setting goals	Clarity	Confusion	
	Taking first steps	Organization	Too much/too soon Rigidity	
Storming	Reassessing Exploring options	Fun Excitement Diversity	Tension Conflict "Bottoming-out" Loss of members	Coaching
Norming	Resolving Evaluating Making decisions	Cohesion	Groupthink (stereotyping, self-censorship, direct pressure)	Supporting
Performing	Implementing	Closure Completion Synergy	Footdragging Social loafing	Delegating
Transforming	Regrouping Disbanding Letting go	Time for new activities Reenergize Satisfaction	Holding on Sadness Sense of loss Disappointment	Variable

Unit IV. Making Sense of Organizations

The complexity of groups pales in comparison with that of organizations. Organizations usually have a formal hierarchy of positions (as shown in an organizational chart) that endures longer than the people filling the positions. Organizations are more likely than groups to be permanent, legal entities with written rules and procedures. Organizations are collections of individuals and groups of people deliberately arranged to achieve goals, perform tasks, or conduct programs that might not be as effectively performed by individuals or isolated groups (Baskin and Aronoff, 1980; Lauffer, 1984).

Organizations can defy understanding. They frustrate us with bureaucratic "red tape," and confound us by taking on a life of their own. They have a powerful instinct for self-preservation but, ironically, by resisting change, sometimes hasten their own demise.

The purpose in Unit IV is to build an understanding of organizations through using Extension as an example of an organization of considerable complexity. We examine Extension from four viewpoints: a people perspective, a structural perspective, a political perspective, and a cultural perspective. We then look at organizational change, and conclude by transferring these same principles to other organizations.

The Inner Workings

Social science offers many perspectives for making sense of organizations (Bolman and Deal, 1985). The *people perspective* focuses on how employees' needs are met by the organization and how the organization's needs are met by the employees. The *structural perspective* focuses on formal roles and responsibilities to keep the organization in motion. The *political perspective* concentrates on the distribution of scarce resources, and struggles to maintain or increase power in the organization. The *cultural perspective* focuses on the meanings and values shared by employees in the organization, as expressed in tradition, ceremony, or myth.

The Structural Perspective

The structural perspective is probably the most frequently used of the four perspectives. To proponents of this view, organizations are systems of roles and responsibilities structured to achieve goals and to ensure that members conform to the needs of the organization (Hall, 1982). Organizations have a formal and a nonformal structure, both with implications for organizational effectiveness and efficiency, although researchers have paid more attention to the formal structure.

Formal structure is revealed in an organizational chart. Power flows in only one direction in the formal structure—from the top down. Four yardsticks can be used to measure structure. The first is the *formality yardstick.* A formal organization is more likely than an informal one to have written, standardized rules and procedures. The second is the *centrality yardstick.* In a centralized organization, power is concentrated in the upper levels; in a decentralized one, power is more diffusely spread throughout all levels. The third, the *size yardstick,* assesses the number of staff members or size of budget. The fourth, the *complexity yardstick,* measures both vertical complexity (the number of layers in the organization) and horizontal complexity (the number of departments or geographic locations).

Of course, information and power do not always flow according to the organizational chart. Power and position are not always congruent. Organizations also have an informal structure and a communication system known as "the grapevine" (Kennedy, 1984).

The word *grapevine* originated during the Civil War period when telegraph lines were strung from tree to tree like grapevines. Messages so often became garbled that any false information or rumor began to be attributed to the "grapevine." This negative connotation "stuck," so that we now equate informal communication systems with the grapevine, the grapevine with rumor, rumor as "bad," and thus, informal communication systems as bad for the organization [Luthans (adapted from Davis), 1981].

However, the grapevine also has many positive functions. Rumors are accurate at least one-half of the time. Since they sometimes represent the only upward flow of information, rumors must not be ignored. The grapevine transmits information at a high rate of speed. More and more "smart" managers accept an informal network as a given and use it for their own ends, to build consensus, to test and generate support for ideas, or to kill bad ideas and policies before they are written. Despite being equated with rumor, the grapevine may provide more accurate information than the formal communication system, because it is often closer to the source and is filtered through fewer levels.

Viewed as a whole, the Extension structure is *formal, decentralized* (considerable power is held locally), *large* (more than 16,000 employees), and *vertically and horizontally complex* (national, regional, state, area, and county levels, vertically; and hundreds of state, area, and county offices, horizontally).

The Cooperative Extension System's decentralization is unique. The organization consists of 57 relatively autonomous, complex state and territorial Extension services, with hundreds of semiautonomous subunits. While the 57 services share a historical mandate, dependence on public funding, and affiliation with land-grant institutions, each state service also is unique. For example, the way Extension is integrated into its land-grant institution varies from state to state, as does the relative emphasis on subject matter. The southern states have a dual system of Extension organizations within land-grant institutions, which includes the 1862 and the 1890 institutions. (*Note:* Many insights into the evolution of Extension's culture are provided in Module 1: Understanding Cooperative Extension.)

State Extension services are historically tied to counties. In principle, programs are locally initiated and custom-tailored to fit local needs. The County Extension office, with its local governing council, is Extension's foundation. Extension has been described as hostage to a county-based structure that limits its freedom to organize its delivery system for greater effectiveness (Blakely, 1985). Yet, few public agencies are as deeply woven into the fabric of this nation or are more visible, and this is a consequence of structure and performance. The county base can be tapped for political support. Decentralization, while sometimes cumbersome and increasingly expensive to maintain, provides stability. Extension is a loosely coupled system, one whose parts are interdependent but with loose, intermittent, and unpredictable ties (Weick, 1976). Such systems have an advantage in turbulent environments.

The People Perspective

Proponents of the human resource (people) perspective argue that organizations *are* people and people are most productive and satisfied when they do personally meaningful work. The greater the degree to which personal needs are aligned with the organization, the greater the satisfaction of employees (Culbert and McDonough, 1985). Organizations that meet human needs receive commitment, loyalty, and increased productivity in return.

People seek responsibility, recognition, pleasant surroundings, personal growth, relationships, and job and financial security. At their best, organizations provide not only salaries and wages, but also a setting for social interaction and personal growth. At their worst, or-

ganizations can alienate, dehumanize, frustrate, and waste human talents. In such destructive environments, people may dedicate themselves to "beating the system." When organizational and individual needs are not aligned, people may be exploited or may seek to exploit the organization (Bolman and Deal, 1985).

Advocates of the people perspective seek to humanize bureaucracy (Bennis, 1987). They view the democratization of the work place as a necessary (and perhaps inevitable) step to benefit both the organization and the employee (Pinchot, 1985). These advocates call for increased employee participation in decisionmaking.

What do we know about Extension workers as people? For one thing, they are relatively homogeneous. Most were educated at land-grant institutions. The obvious advantage of homogeneity is predictability—a two-edged sword.

The Cultural Perspective

Organizational culture is a pattern of shared meanings, values, and assumptions discovered or developed while coping with external problems. The pattern has worked well enough to be considered valid and to be taught to new members as *the* way to think and feel when facing similar problems.

An organizational value might be product quality or individual initiative. A shared belief might be "the customer is always right," or "there is no substitute for field experience." An organizational myth might be that the founder worked 22 hours a day, or that the only member of a minority group ever to make it into management was demoted for speaking up during a meeting.

Organizations have *heroes* (the founder, or the person who first thought of a successful new product or service), *symbols* (logos, emblems, or other representations displayed prominently that come to stand for the organization as a whole), *sayings*, and *ceremonies* (complete with certificates, pledges, proclamations, perhaps even costumes and special music). Extension meets these criteria. It has a hero (Seaman Knapp), rituals (Epsilon Sigma Phi initiation), symbols (4-H clover, new logo), sayings ("Helping people help themselves") and values (grass-roots programming). Other values are reflected in the Extension Worker's Creed:

EXTENSION WORKER'S CREED

I BELIEVE in people and their hopes, their aspirations, and their faith; in their right to make their own plans and arrive at their own decisions; in their ability and power to enlarge their lives and plan for the happiness of those they love.

I BELIEVE that education, of which Extension work is an essential part, is basic in stimulating individual initiative, self-determination, and leadership, that these are the keys to democracy and that people, when given facts they understand, will act not only in their self-interest but also in the interest of society.

I BELIEVE that education is a lifelong process and the greatest university is the home; that my success as a teacher is proportional to those qualities of mind and spirit that give me welcome entrance to the homes of families I serve.

I BELIEVE in intellectual freedom to search for and present the truth without bias and with courteous tolerance toward the views of others.

I BELIEVE that the Extension Service is a link between the people and the ever-changing discoveries in the laboratories.

I BELIEVE in public institutions of which I am a part.

I BELIEVE in my own work and the opportunity I have to make my life useful to humankind.

Because I BELIEVE these things, I am an Extension worker.

An Extension culture (which varies considerably from state to state) is forged by shared history, professional activities and associations, and common experiences. Statewide annual conferences and frequent in-service professional education sessions bring workers together to build and maintain interpersonal bonds. Most Extension educators were educated at land-grant institutions. Job announcements may include "familiarity with Extension" as a factor in the selection process. Extension workers establish a close-knit identity and camaraderie. [*Note:* See Module 1 for information about the values that continue to provide Extension's direction today.]

Culture can unify, energize, and provide a sense of belonging. But the term *cultural lag* implies that a culture may fail to keep pace with changes in technology. It may restrict adaptability by emphasizing the past.

The Political Perspective

From a political viewpoint, the pursuit of power and control over the distribution of scarce resources is the basic process that drives organizations. Conflict is natural and inevitable, more so when resources are scarce. Coalitions work behind the scenes to promote self-interest as to "what's good for the organization." Change occurs when the balance of power shifts.

Politics can be rampant in public organizations (Bolman and Deal, 1985, p. 112):

> If political pressures on organizational goals are visible in private organizations, they are often blatant in the public sector. Public agencies typically operate amid a complex welter of constituencies, each making policy demands and using whatever resources it can muster to enforce those demands. The result, typically, is a confusing multiplicity of goals, many of which are in conflict.

Organizational conflict, which is rooted in conflicting goals, is minimized by having rewards depend upon the success of larger units and by emphasizing shared goals.

A near truism is that conflict and organizational politics become more intense when resources become more scarce. This seems to be equally true within and between organizations.

Putting it All Together

Cooperative Extension is structurally complex, but decentralized—a good example of a loosely coupled system. Extension's culture is perhaps a little weathered, but still a source of pride and strength. Despite being a "people" organization, Extension has not been exempt from the politics that inevitably accompany declining resources. As Bolman and Deal (1985) wryly observe in reference to the best seller *In Search of Excellence* (Peters and Waterman, 1984), the best examples of the people perspective are those who have the luxury of abundance. These success stories do not come from declining industries.

Making Change

Change is inevitable. Organizational change is driven by necessity, usually in response to external events. After considering the sources of change, we will focus on three ways by which organizations respond to change.

Sources of Change

Organizational change usually occurs in reaction to external events. The most pressing source of change may be change itself. Toffler's 1970 best-seller, *Future Shock*, provided a name and gave popular attention to this phenomenon.

The needs of customers or clients may shift. The Chrysler Corporation nearly collapsed, due in part to ignoring consumer demand for smaller, more fuel-efficient automobiles.

Demographic or occupational distributions may shift. The steady decline in the number of farmers and the changing proportion and geographic distribution of the rural population has greatly affected Cooperative Extension.

Public perceptions can change. Public perceptions of wasteful spending in the Department of Defense (recall the jokes about $600 ashtrays and $500 hammers) brought closer scrutiny of payments to private contractors. Consider a recent article in a popular magazine, in which County Extension offices are among its list of "Uncle Sam's Ten Worst Taxpayer Rip-Offs" (Lambro, 1986, p. 63):

> The Department of Agriculture outposts were set up in 1914, when nearly 35 percent of the nation's population were farmers. Today, 2.2 percent farm. Yet these offices still operate in virtually every county in the country. Increasingly, they dispense information about how to eliminate crabgrass and give courses in sewing, cooking, upholstery, and quilting. "It's crazy," admits a Department of Agriculture official, "but Congress insists on funding all of these offices."

Consider the enormous influence of technological developments, such as telecommunications, on Extension. Likewise, the effects of biotechnology on Extension are nearly unfathomable. The dissemination of technological innovations, Extension's claim to fame, is now challenged on many fronts.

As many Extension workers have become painfully aware over the past several years, funding cutbacks force almost immediate organizational change. Budget cuts have propelled Extension into retrenchment, a process permeated with emotion, conflict, and politics (Hirschhorn et al., 1983).

Kaufman (1985, p. 39) suggests that,

> When all is said and done, the most volatile element in the organizational environment may not be nature, or social structures and preferences, or ideas, or demography; rather it may be other organizations.

Responses to Change

In response to change, organizations may react, adapt, innovate, or employ some combination thereof. Resistance is the most common reaction. In fact, we know more about why organizations resist change than about how to change them.

Organizations resist change for structural, political, cultural, and people-oriented reasons. Organizational *structure* is antithetical to change. Organizations are self-protecting; they develop strategies to defend all attacks. *People* who value certainty and security also resist change. Calculated *political opposition* comes from those invested in the status quo. And, finally, *tradition*, the way we have always done things, can still change.

Eventually, most organizations must adapt to change. Adaptation is generally incremental in nature. Adapting may take the form of giving up territory, defending territory, or competing for new territory.

A third type of organizational response to change is innovation. Innovation is typically thought of as externally focused, such as a new product or service. However, innovation applies to new ways of doing or organizing things as much as to new products or programs. Innovation also can be internal, consisting of new, more efficient ways of doing things. Pinchot (1985) calls the latter "intrapreneuring." Drucker (1985) warns that, unless public service institutions build entrepreneurship and innovation into their systems, they will be superseded by competing entrepreneurial public-service institutions, and rendered obsolete.

Retrenchment management requires hard choices that balance historical strengths against new initiatives in the context of new political and competitive realities. Hirchhorn et al. (1983) offer a planning model for retrenchment that allows for the preservation of the "historical core" while allowing for adaptation and innovation.

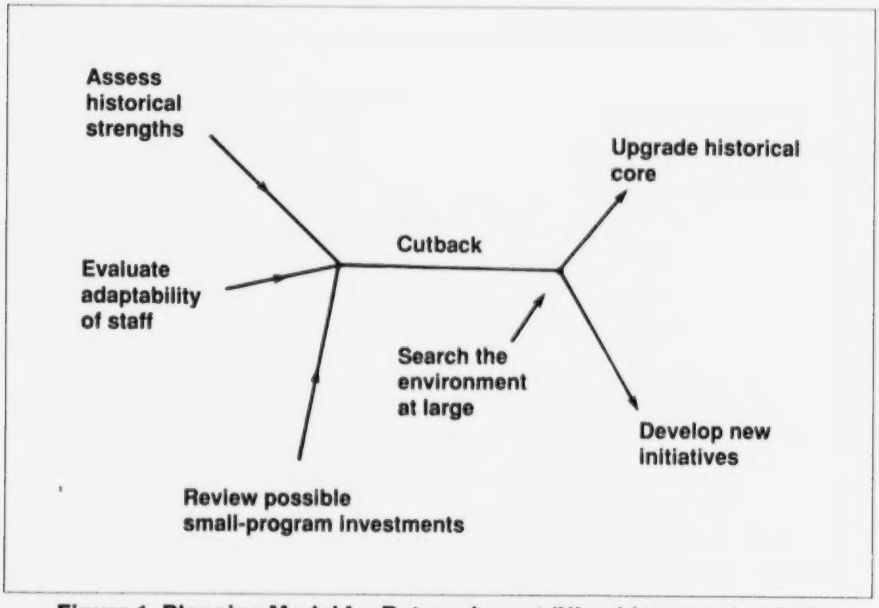

Figure 1. Planning Model for Retrenchment (Hirschhorn et al., 1983)

Correlates of Innovation

Organizational structure can impede innovation, or facilitate innovation. Formal, centralized, large, and complex organizations are thought to limit personal autonomy and discretion. Work groups in such organizations mirror the formal structure and emphasize predictability, direct authority, and specialization. In contrast, decentralized, informal, smaller, and less complex organizations offer more autonomy to work groups. Authority is less direct and membership is more often voluntary as it emerges from informal relationships that cross-cut levels or departments. Innovation is thought to flourish in such organizations because they are more flexible (Kanter, 1983). Of course, few organizations match these "ideal" types. What about the Cooperative Extension System, with its complex, decentralized structure?

But flexibility is not always the answer. Flexibility has high costs for an organization. Some resources must be withheld to allow for quick shifts. Furthermore, under some circumstances, wholehearted commitment to a single option may be advantageous. Paradoxically, maintaining flexibility can itself shut off options and impose limits on flexibility (Kaufman, 1985).

Age of an organization also is associated with innovation. Newer organizations seem better able to blend organizational and human needs. As organizations mature, their structures ossify, means become ends, and self-protection becomes paramount. Organizational cultures lose their vital edge. Efficiency—doing things in the right way, may be confused with effectiveness—doing the right thing (Drucker, 1985).

Organizations often maintain structures and values associated with the time of their founding (Stinchcombe, 1965). In

1914, agriculture dominated the U.S. economy. Technology was labor-intensive and relatively primitive, and the nation was largely rural. Agriculture, while still significant today, has a different face. Agrarian values may still pervade society, but farmers do not.

The conditions under which Cooperative Extension emerged have been fundamentally altered. Even before the latest round of budget cuts, Blakely et al. (1985, p. 278) warned:

> A failure in the Extension concept could occur in the early twenty-first century, basically because the present Extension Service is based on an early twentieth century model. In the twenty-first century environment, a more efficient and technology-oriented education system will be required. For the Cooperative Extension Service, the past will not serve as prologue.

Form of organization is a third variable often correlated with innovation. Private organizations generally are considered to be more innovative and entrepreneurial than public organizations. The forces in public-service institutions that impede innovation seem to be inherent, integral, and inseparable (Drucker, 1985, p. 178).

> The closer a public-service institution comes to attaining its objectives, the more frustrated it will be and the harder it will work on what it is already doing. Whether it succeeds or fails, the demand to innovate and to do something else will be resented as an attack on its basic commitment, on the very reason for its existence, and on its beliefs and values. These are serious obstacles to innovation. They explain why, by and large, innovation in public services tends to come from new ventures rather than from existing institutions.

Extension is thus most threatened, ironically, by its very success.

As Blakely et al. (1985, p. 275) observe,

> One consequence of the persistent image of Cooperative Extension as a socio-technical problem solver and knowledge transfer or diffusion agent is that we expect more from it than it can deliver.... As in the case of an institution that reaches the status of a myth (e.g., baseball, the two-party system), the strength of the belief regarding its character exceeds the expectations of most people who actually encounter it in operation.

Public and private organizations are distinguished in ways other than propensity toward or aversion to innovation. Private organizations are thought to have clearer goals—profit, productivity, and growth vs. mandate, mission, and service—and to be more externally accountable to stockholders and customers. But are they really so different? In challenging this conventional dichotomy, Bozeman (1987) suggests that *all* organizations are public, in varying degrees, and that a more useful distinction is *degree* of political and economic authority. Locate Extension in your state on the publicness grid (Figure 2).

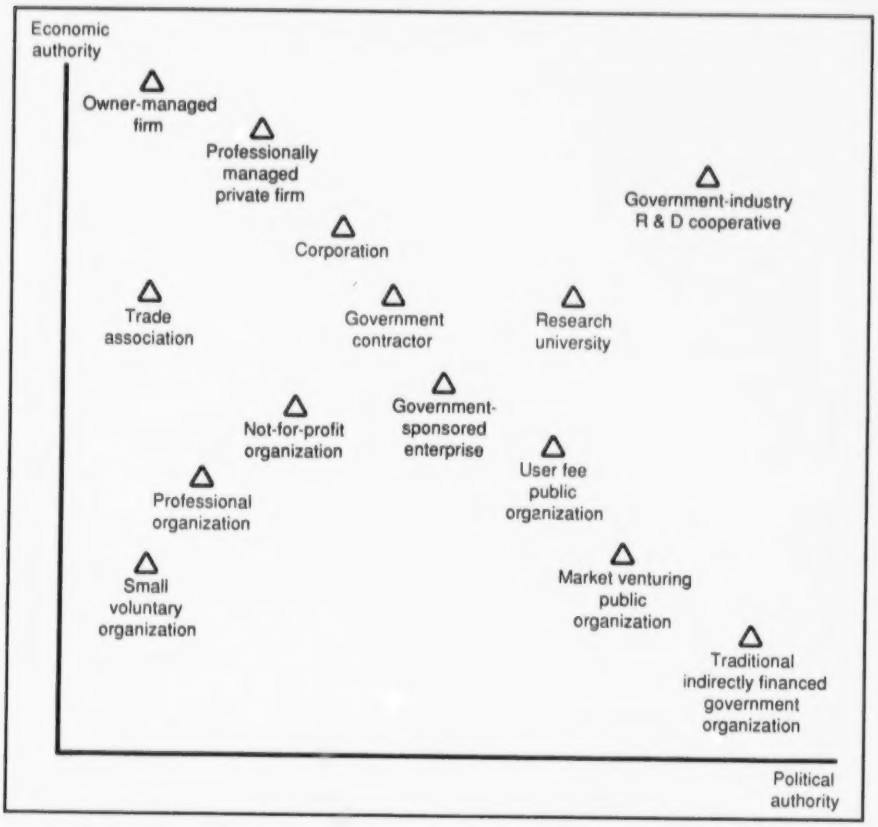

Figure 2. The publicness grid (Bozeman, 1987)

If not structure, age, or form, what does account for innovation? What can we learn about innovation from other organizations? Consider a private-sector organization with a reputation for innovation: the 3M Corporation. The following anecdote reveals part of 3M's culture (Pinchot, 1985, p. 46):

> When his boss told entrepreneur Phil Palmquist to stop working on reflective coatings because that wasn't his job, he continued four nights a week from 7:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m. Soon he had a product 100 times brighter than white paint. Among other things, it now lights up roadway signs at night when your headlights shine on them. In a more extreme case, George Swenson, another 3M entrepreneur, was fired when he wouldn't stop working on a new roofing material. He continued working on the project despite the fact that he was no longer employed. Once he had it working, the company relented and rehired him. By treasuring such stories, 3M encourages others to try to innovate despite opposition.

[And what does the following suggest about 3M's structure?]

> Ames Smithers, a *Wall Street Journal* reporter calling in the late 1950s to write an article about the 3M company, interviewed President Buetow. The newsman mentioned at one point that his understanding of 3M would be enhanced considerably if he could see an organization chart. Buetow changed the subject, almost as though he had not heard. The visitor repeated his request several times. Still no direct response from Buetow.
>
> Finally, in growing exasperation, the reporter interjected, "From your reluctance to talk about or show me an organization chart, may I assume you don't even have one?" "Oh, we have one all right," Buetow replied, reaching sheepishly into

his desk drawer. "But we don't like to wave it around. There are some great people here who might get upset if they found out who their bosses are."

[And what about people at 3M?]

> As our business grows, it becomes increasingly necessary to delegate responsibility and to encourage men and women to exercise their initiative. This requires considerable tolerance. Those men and women to whom we delegate authority and responsibility, if they are good people, are going to want to do their jobs in their own way. These are characteristics we want and should be encouraged as long as their way conforms to our general pattern of operation. Mistakes will be made, but if a person is essentially right, the mistakes he or she makes are not as serious in the long run as the mistakes management will make if it is dictatorial and undertakes to tell those under its authority exactly how they must do their job. Management that is destructively critical when mistakes are made kills initiative and it's essential that we have many people with initiative, if we're to continue to grow.

The 3M culture celebrates innovation and commitment. Traditional authority is underplayed. Employees are empowered and mistakes are accepted.

Change Strategies

Organizations that face uncertainty can increase their capacity to process information through *vertical* or *horizontal systems*. *Vertical systems* include the traditional systems of evaluation and accountability found in most bureaucracies (Ickis et al., 1986, pp. 249–250):

> One rationale for the bureaucratic form has been to preserve accountability to legitimate authority: private ownership in the case of the private enterprise, and duly constituted political authority in the case of the public sector. It has been assumed that legitimate lines of accountability are exclusively hierarchical, with only the top level being accountable externally. But in contemporary society, such accountability is little more than a myth.

Social utility may be a better grounding for institutional legitimacy. Does the organization serve a useful function relative to its costs? The lines of accountability in a strategic organization resemble networks more than hierarchies. Accountability links the organization to its environment at many points and levels and facilitates access by numerous constituencies. Such systems increase "surface area" (Kanter, 1983).

Horizontal systems are underdeveloped in most organizations, especially in the public sector. Extension's system of county offices is a horizontal system, one with enviable "surface." Horizontal relations can be improved by working more effectively with groups and organizations, whether county Extension councils or advisory boards, volunteers, secretaries and office assistants, or clientele themselves. We may be able to refine mechanisms for sensing new needs, whether program planning or needs assessment.

Extension, an organization known as adaptable and locally relevant, is at the same time bureaucratically mired and change-resistant. Qualities that contributed to Extension's success threaten its future.

The Innovation Process

The Innovation. Many checklists are available to assess the "adoptability" of an innovation, whether new product or service or new idea or way of doing things. The following list is comprehensive and offers a handy acronym—A VICTORY, which we modify only slightly (Davis, 1971, in Bennis, 1987).

A—ability to carry out change

V—values (of individual, group, oranization, culture)

I—information about the innovation

C—context (organizational structure as well as circumstances)

T—timing or readiness to consider the idea

O—obligation or "felt need" to address a problem

R—resistance (strength of barriers, deliberate or not)

Y—yield (the potential payoff after costs)

The Team. Individuals, the source of most ideas, rarely can change an organization. Interpersonal power is needed. A small group charged with a mission, given minimal resources and maximal autonomy, can spark innovation. In groups, people can and will take risks that they would be unable to take alone. *Teams* are officially sanctioned groups that are charged with completing an organizational mission with members who must depend upon one another to complete that work successfully (Alderfer, 1987). By spreading the risks, teams facilitate innovation.

Organizational support systems reinforce work group efforts by providing rewards, education, information, and material resources (Hackman, 1987). Rewards should focus on group performance, not individual performance. Educational support can take the form of technical consultation or in-house staff development. Informational support may be access to data or analytical tools. Tangible resources, such as equipment or meeting rooms, also are needed. Intracapital—a small pool of discretionary resources, whether time or money—can be stretched to the maximum to promote innovation (Pinchot, 1985).

Teams need motivationally engaging tasks, preferably whole and meaningful pieces of work with visible outcomes and significant consequences for others. While the division of authority between team and management will vary from organization to organization and from team to team within an organization, all teams need some autonomy to decide how to do their work (ownership).

Teams need moderate diversity and just enough members to do the work. There are some advantages in establishing groups that are slightly *smaller* than the task technically requires. Teams need task and process expertise, a balance that is attainable through assignment or self-selection.

Team effectiveness can be assessed by using social and personal criteria (Hackman, 1987, p. 323):

> Output judged acceptable by those who receive it, a team that winds up its work at least as healthy as when it started, and members who are at least as satisfied as they are frustrated by what has transpired.

Summary of Making Sense of Organizations

A rapidly changing society needs public-service institutions that can help it adapt (Drucker, 1985). Ten years ago, Raudabaugh (1976, p. 133) identified Extension's dilemma and an unfilled niche that can take Extension into the twenty-first century:

> Extension played a vital part in that productive miracle, the transformation of an agrarian society so rapid that we're not sure what to call the outcome. Does Extension now need to spark a value-oriented technology to secure some measure of national and human harmony and safety? Such a value-oriented technology might include: using resources wisely; fostering policy and action about powerful technology and techniques loosened in the world; strengthening the weakening bond between the family, community, work, religion, and education; and building a sense of responsibility locally with the capacity to take part in the life of the states and nation.

Such a mission could spark organizational renewal.

Unit V. Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Interorganizational relations are connections in a network in which the "players" are organizations. Extension's interorganizational network includes *resource sources* (funding bodies, taxpayer groups) and *resource receivers* (community groups, civic clubs). These relations can be classified as *collaborative* (e.g., experiment stations in the land-grant institutions and other USDA agencies, e.g., Soil Conservation Service) or *competitive* (in some states, community colleges or private consulting businesses). This interorganizational network position is unique (Patton, 1986, p. 17):

> Extension, more than any other organization in modern and future society, sits at the center between the government sector, the public nonprofit sector, the private nonprofit sector, and the private business sector.

Is this position a constraint or an opportunity? Its tremendous potential for resource mobilization can be realized only with Extension workers skilled in the fundamentals of networking, interpersonal relations, group work, and interorganizational relations.

Coordination

Single organizations cannot solve today's complex problems, even with adequate resources (Mulford and Klonglan, 1981). *Interorganizational coordination* is a process whereby two or more organizations deal collectively with shared problems by following formal or informal procedures that allow them to work in the same area without coming into conflict.

Benefits and Costs of Coordination

The benefits of coordination are widely proclaimed. Coordination is seen by some as the best way to preserve the quality of services to clients (Rossi et al., 1982). The public demands coordination. Improved service quality includes better client access and less fragmentation. Organizations that coordinate may enhance their public image. Yet, for every benefit, there seems to be a corresponding cost in terms of effectiveness and efficiency.

Contrary to conventional wisdom, coordination can *reduce* program innovation (Whetten, 1987, 249):

> Establishing a common language, a set of working assumptions, and a high degree of trust between dissimilar people is very difficult. Consequently, as the joint program-planning process advances, frustrations created by communication difficulties mount, and pressures from superiors to reach a decision increase. As a result, despite the potential for cross-fertilization of ideas, there is a natural tendency for participants to search for safe solutions—which also turn out to be rather mundane.

Coordination of existing programs can reinforce the status quo and direct attention away from new and better programs, technologies, ideas, and service providers (Warren et al., 1974). Political bargaining and compromising may produce programs inferior to those conducted by organizations acting alone. A completely nonredundant system, with each service provided by only one source, may leave gaps due to ignorance, error, prejudice, or whatever (Whetten, 1987). Clientele may be served better by competition between agencies (Warren, 1970). Coordination often increases inputs of time and energy. Increased travel and communications costs always accompany coordination. More meetings inevitably cost staff time.

As a result of these shortcomings, most organizations avoid coordination, if possible (Van de Ven and Walker, 1984), and

place a higher priority on their own goals (Gans and Horton, 1975). Negative economic conditions prompt *reductions* in joint activities. In response to uncertainty, organizations often withdraw from joint efforts.

Coordination Choices

Although coordination may create as many problems as it solves, not coordinating is really not an option. Since organizations must coordinate activities with other organizations to survive, it behooves them to do the best possible job. Fortunately, except for mandated coordination, organizations can generally choose at least some of the following: *with whom* to coordinate, *what* to coordinate, *when* to coordinate, *how* to coordinate, and to *what extent* to coordinate. We will consider some implications of each for Extension.

With Whom to Coordinate. Other organizations are probably the most significant resource in any organization's environment (Kaufman, 1985). As in networking, sometimes it makes sense to coordinate with organizations that have complementary functions.

Several organizations can work together in the same community or similar types of organizations from different communities can work together. Both are examples of *horizontal linkages*. Coordination between organizations at different levels of government is *vertical linkage*.

In response to public demand, the number of mixed public and private ventures has increased. Public and private partnerships may be more difficult to establish and maintain than public and public or private and private relationships. People who are familiar with the private sector may see Extension as slow, cumbersome, and inefficient. They fail to recognize that these characteristics are typical of most public service institutions, not because of inherent defects, but simply because of the "nature of the beast."

What to Coordinate. Almost any resource can be exchanged. Even with tight budgets, in-kind resources of staff time, equipment, or facilities are available for coordination (Rossi et al., 1982). Administrative services, such as budgeting, purchasing, record keeping, grants management, or staff development, can be coordinated. Staffing can be coordinated by consolidating personnel administration, joint staffing, or sharing office space. Programming can be coordinated, as well as outreach or referral of clientele.

When to Coordinate. Coordination can occur any time during the program process, from program planning to evaluation.

How to Coordinate. Structural alternatives range from the informal to highly formal arrangements. Third parties, such as coordinating councils, sometimes are involved.

To What Extent to Coordinate. Coordination can be as simple and nonformal as sharing information, or as complex as formalized joint programs. Rogers (1974) arranged these alternatives in a hierarchy: awareness of the organization; acquaintance with the director of the organization; interaction with directors during the past year to discuss activities; information exchange (on mailing lists); resource exchange (sharing meeting room, personnel, equipment, or funds); interlocking boards or councils; joint programs; and written agreements (personnel commitments, client referrals, procedures for working together).

Nonformal interaction is less intense, less costly, and usually precedes resource exchange and joint programs (Mulford, 1984). Joint programs require more resources and are, therefore, more difficult to establish. It is easier to identify common goals than to administer joint programs to address them.

Assisters and Resisters

Good intentions do not always lead to coordination. Some people would like to coordinate, but do not know how (Ryan, 1987). In other cases there are obstacles to coordination. According to Mulford and Klonglan (1981, pp. 9–10):

> Barriers have to be overcome or canceled, if coordination is to occur. Some barriers nearly always exist—and some can't always be overcome. However, some factors that encourage coordination . . . almost always exist or can be developed. Whether coordination occurs or not depends upon the balance between the barriers and the facilitators.

Force-field analysis can be used to identify assisters and resisters to coordination and to develop strategies to circumvent or eliminate the resisters. Some major types of assisters and resisters are discussed next.

Assisters

People. People who are acquainted, especially those who have worked together in the past, will coordinate more easily.

Purpose. A common interest *or* a common enemy can assist coordination. A common crisis, or a belief that client needs are not being met, can assist coordination. Shared values are a facilitator. A sense of common purpose can be built by identifying potential benefits, common goals, holding joint staff meetings, exchanging information, identifying obstacles to coordination, developing plans to overcome obstacles, establishing common objectives, and mutually gathering information.

Proximity. Obviously, more joint programs occur when offices are located close together. Proximity promotes mutual resource acquisition (Morrissey et al., 1982). Extension professionals are embedded in interorganizational networks by virtue of common geography, such as community residence.

Turf Agreement. The belief by each organization that the other organization is legitimate (has the right to provide those services, to those particular clients, in that geographic area) facilitates coordination (Mulford and Klonglan, 1981).

Past Coordination. Organizations that already coordinate some activities, or that have a history of working together, find it easier to increase coordination.

Resisters

People. Personality conflicts can kill joint activities. Some people are unwilling to cooperate with others. Others who are unable to cooperate perhaps lack interpersonal skills. Differing professional ideologies and methods can impede coordination (Aiken et al., 1975). While differences are a potential source of new and creative ideas, they rarely are. Negative attitudes or committed "footdragging" can be difficult to overcome.

Distance. Relationships are more difficult to establish and maintain across greater distances (Schermerhorn, 1975). As distances increase, informal interaction decreases, and costs to clientele increase (Boje and Whetten, 1981).

Loss of Autonomy. Coordination usually involves some loss of autonomy (Mulford and Klonglan, 1981). Organizations fear the effect of this loss on their strategic position (Aiken et al., 1975; Schermerhorn, 1975). Coordination will generally fail if the autonomy of one organization is threatened by that of another (Schmidt and Kochan, 1977).

Scarce Resources. As resources become scarce, organizations are more concerned with accountability and program documentation (Levine, 1983).

Loss of Organizational Identity. For an organization to maintain its identity, results of coordination must be visible (Aldrich, 1976). Problems arise when credit for a program must be shared among several organizations (Halpert, 1982).

Coordination Model

Mulford and Klonglan's (1981) 10-step model of coordination is "theoretically sound and practically useful" (Whetten, 1987, p. 248). Their model has been used extensively in a variety of institutional contexts. Steps in the model are:

1. Problem definition
2. Location
3. Identification of key organizations

4. Organizational commitment to the problem
5. Commitment to coordination
6. Domain consensus

7. Resource flow
8. Coordination structure
9. Objectives
10. Plan of work

Steps 1 through 3 are preliminary decisions; steps 4 through 6 are decisions that must be made by each participating organization; and steps 7 through 10 are joint decisions. Resource mobilization occurs, once these 10 steps are completed. Progress should be evaluated continuously.

Summary of Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Successful coordination grows from personal networks and strong one-to-one ties. While rarely easy, and sometimes impossible, coordination is a "fact of life" to be accomplished as effectively as possible.

Selected Annotated Bibliography

Unit I. Networking

Macy, Joanna R. 1985. *Despair and Personal Power in the Nuclear Age.* Philadelphia, Pa.: New Society Publishers.

Macy presents a philosophy of power based on interconnectedness with many practical applications. This book is recommended for those facilitating groups that are dealing with emotionally laden issues. In Chapter 4, group work is addressed and guidelines are presented for facilitating and empowering groups. Techniques for building group energy and participation are offered.

Mueller, Robert K. 1986. *Corporate Networking: Building Channels for Information and Influence.* New York: The Free Press.

Mueller presents a practical and readily accessible guide to the networking process. His emphasis on the "how" includes balancing networks with hierarchy, bypassing the bureaucracy, managing innovative networks, and designing networks. The book contains an extensive glossary.

Norris, Marilyn W. (ed.). 1983. *Networks: A Matrix for Exchange.* New York: J. C. Penney Forum.

This collection of resources on networking includes suggestions for mapping works and distinguishing links and modes, a personal inventory, a networking game, networking self-assessment, a model of patterns of change in innovation networks, guidelines for beginners, and a short annotated bibliography. Also contains several short articles.

Unit II. Communicating One-to-One

Axelrod, Robert. 1984. *The Evolution of Cooperation.* New York: Basic Books.

Axelrod uses a computer tournament to answer the question, "How does cooperation emerge in a world of egotists without central authority?" Entries, which are programs for playing the prisoner's dilemma game, consist of two choices: defect or cooperate. Each strategy (program) competes one-to-one with each other. The winner in the first tournament is a simple program called "TIT for TAT," which starts with cooperation and then does what the other player did on the previous move. Four properties make "TIT for TAT" successful: niceness (avoiding unnecessary conflict); clarity; provocability (retaliating in kind); and forgiveness (reestablishing cooperation after retaliating once). Axelrod applies his ideas to situations that range from trench warfare in World War I, to biological evolution, to global conflict between nations, and draws implications for private behavior and public policy.

Bolton, Robert. 1979. *People Skills: How to Assert Yourself, Listen to Others, and Resolve Conflicts.* New York: Touchstone.

This comprehensive and accessible treatment of communication focuses on three areas: listening skills, assertion skills, and conflict management skills. Introductory and concluding sections are focused on barriers to communication, bridging the interpersonal gap, the essentials of effective communication, and how to improve communication.

Butler, Pamela E. 1981. *Self-Assertion for Women.* New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.

The core of self-assertion is awareness of and respect for one's own feelings. Butler shows how the basics of assertiveness—setting limits and self-initiation—

combat feelings of powerlessness and dependence. She addresses messages to self and verbal and nonverbal messages to others, and concludes with a discussion of power. Butler's overview combines practical advice with sample dialogues, step-by-step exercises, and illustrations.

Hedlund, Dalva E., and L. Bryn Freedman. 1981. *Interactive Skills: Helping Through Listening and Influencing*. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University.

This resource notebook is a companion to the videotape, "Murray Takes a Workshop." Part I, on active listening, is focused on using minimal encouragers, questioning, reflecting, and summarizing and integrating. Part II, on influencing skills, is focused on self-expression, confronting, giving directions, structuring interaction, and finding one's own style.

Unit III. Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Doyle, Michael, and David Straus. 1976. *How to Make Meetings Work*. New York: Jove.

Useful handbook on all facets of meetings, including agendas, problem solving, presentations, planning, and so forth. Contains an excellent section on facilitating. The authors advocate a process called the "Interaction Method."

Gouran, Dennis S., and Randy Y. Hirokawa. 1986. "Counteractive Functions of Communication in Effective Group Decisionmaking." In R. Hirokawa and M. Poole (eds.), *Communication and Group Decisionmaking*. Beverley Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Authors analyze both progressive and regressive movement of a group along a decisionmaking path. Most group discussions are characterized by more disruptive than promotive interactions. Group decisionmaking is perhaps best understood as a consequence of counteractive influence that arises in response to diversions and barriers triggered by disruptive interaction. Counteractive influence is called for when: (1) faulty information is being used; (2) group members make deficient inferences; (3) faulty assumptions are made; (4) group misperceives or misunderstands the problem or issue; (5) group misevaluates positive and negative consequences of alternatives; (6) group violates procedural norms; and (7) group is excessively influenced by high-status member(s). Authors call for research on how counteractive influence is most effectively exercised, and why some strategies have greater impact than others.

Heider, John. 1985. *The Tao of Leadership: Leadership Strategies for a New Age*. New York: Bantam Books.

Heider provides simple and clear advice on how to be a group facilitator, with almost universal application: be faithful; trust the process; pay attention; and inspire others. This adaptation of the Tao Te Ching will provide insight to both experienced and less-experienced facilitators. It leaves the reader with new respect for the leader who knows "how things work."

Kanter, Rosabeth, and Barry A. Stein. 1980. *A Tale of "O": On Being Different in an Organization*. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.

People behave predictably, depending upon group structure. X's are people found in large numbers in an organization. O's are "different" in some way, due to age, gender, race, technical specialty, handicap, or other factors. The presence of O's makes X's more aware of their X-ness, and O's more aware of their O-ness, often causing everyone to be uncomfortable. O's usually must live up to two expectations, proving that O's can be competent, and the X's' expectations of a "good O." Some cope with these pressures by becoming over-

achievers. Others minimize their O-ness and become more like X's. Still others avoid the limelight and work behind the scenes. O's may be stereotyped as helpers, sex objects, mascots, or militants. Understanding the dynamics of being different in an organization helps us use group diversity to greatest advantage.

Moscovici, Serge. 1976. *Social Influence and Social Change.* Translated by C. Scerria and G. Heintz. San Francisco: Academic Press.

Social influence, the ability to cause others to change their minds, was first studied in the context of pressure to conform. Moscovici took a different view and concluded that all members in a group can have influence, as well as be influenced. He compiled the studies that showed how minorities, of even one, in a group can influence the majority. He focused on behavioral styles that allow a person in the minority to influence the majority as to consistency, fairness, rigidity, and the demonstration of investment and commitment.

Olsen, Shirley A. (ed.). 1982. *Group Planning and Problem-Solving Methods in Engineering Management.* New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Olsen compiles 10 methods proven useful in team planning and problem solving, which are detailed in 10 contributed chapters on: brainstorming, Delphi method, interpretive structural modeling, issue-based information systems, Kane simulation, nominal group technique, program-planning method, a role-oriented approach to problem solving, and value engineering. Principles outlined at the beginning of the book provide a theoretical base to guide the reader in selecting the most appropriate method. Detailed accounts then provide the necessary information for putting the method into practice.

Parnes, Sidney J. 1985. *A Facilitating Style of Leadership.* New York: Bearly Limited and the Creative Education Foundation.

This 50-page overview is focused on the nature and qualities of an effective facilitator. Suggestions for facilitating are drawn from the author's 40 years of group facilitating. Contains many amusing cartoons as illustrations.

Unit IV. Making Sense of Organizations

Bolman, Lee G., and Terrence E. Deal. 1985. *Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Publishers.

Theories are divided into four frames that provide unique, but incomplete, interpretations of organizational events. The *structural* frame focuses on formal roles and relationships, as in an organizational chart; the *human resource* frame on how the needs of people in organizations are met; the *political* frame on organizations as arenas for struggles for resources and power; and the *symbolic* frame on organizational culture as shared meanings, values, myths, heroes, and symbols. Authors recommend using multiple frames to understand organizations better, because the usefulness of a frame is issue-specific or situation-specific.

Culbert, Samuel A., and John M. McDonough. 1985. *Radical Management: Power Politics and the Pursuit of Trust.* New York: The Free Press.

Radical managers *align* personal needs and capacities with organizational needs. Organizational effectiveness is enhanced when people communicate to others what and how they contribute to the organization through their unique alignment, or *context.* Political behavior occurs when people work covertly to gain acceptance for their actions, often by presenting self-interest as what is good for the organiza-

tion. Effective managers promote alignments that are personally meaningful and organizationally productive. They encourage context sharing as a means to trusting relationships and reduced political behavior.

Gibson, Terry L., Jeanne Moore, and E.J. Lueder. 1980. *Teamwork in Cooperative Extension Programs.* Madison: Division of Program Staff Development, Cooperative Extension Service, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Teamwork enables Extension educators to address complex and multidisciplinary issues. Teamwork is influenced by organizational factors, such as administrative support; individual factors, such as personality; and contextual factors, such as available time. Ideal teams believe in teamwork; have clearly defined roles; understand what each member can contribute; communicate openly; share goals and objectives; balance caring for the task and caring for relationships; have mutual trust, respect, and support; and encourage all members to participate. Teams develop in stages: getting acquainted, setting goals and objectives, assessing the costs and benefits of teamwork, determining the needed skills, choosing the best means for goal achievement, accommodating individual differences in a spirit of compromise, and developing group morale, loyalty, trust, and empathy.

Hirschhorn, Larry, and Associates. 1983. *Cutting Back: Retrenchment and Redevelopment in Human and Community Services.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Publishers.

Conventional planning and retrenchment planning differ in three ways. Conventional planning is primarily rational; retrenchment planning is more emotional, due to lost jobs, dislocation, and redefinition of organizational mission. Conventional planning is oriented by future goals. Retrenchment planning focuses on the past *and* the future to maximize flexibility through evaluating historical strengths *and* future opportunities.

Conventional planning usually occurs *within* sectors. Retrenchment planning focuses on social trends and planning *across* sectors, since that is often the focal point of social change. Organizations facing retrenchment must maximize flexibility, strengthen the historical core, and make small investments in new programs. After evaluating the broad social context, management upgrades the historical core to increase its relevance and to strengthen new initiatives as it refocuses its mission.

Kanter, Rosabeth Moss. 1983. *The Change Masters: Innovation and Entrepreneurship in the American Corporation.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Innovative internal change lies at the heart of vital organizations. Scarce resources can limit vision to short-term productivity at the cost of investment in the future. *Integrationist* organizations, by encouraging innovation and entrepreneurship, keep better pace with changing technologies and markets than do *segmentalist* organizations. They move beyond conventional wisdom; view problems and solutions as wholes; combine ideas from unconnected sources; and view change as opportunity. Organizational levels are integrated and categorization is minimal. *Segmentalist* organizations divide problems, actions, and ideas into subunits to be processed by different parts of the organization. Organizational structure (the past) determines how information is processed and decisions are made. Segmentalist organizations are victims, rather than masters, of change. Integrationist organizations empower employees to innovate by encouraging teamwork, by providing resources to support promising programs, and by providing access to the "power tools" for change—information, resources, and support.

Peters, Thomas J., and Nancy Austin. 1985. *A Passion for Excellence: The Leadership Difference.* New York: Random House.

Excellence means serving customers, providing quality products, constantly innovating, attending to details, and treating people with respect. A "back to basics" revolution is under way in management in response to the failure of complex techniques, devices, and programs. The authors fuel this revolution by giving managers "heart, as well as practical, straightforward guidance." Numerous examples capture "the smell of hardnosed, bottom-line-oriented management." Excellence does not come easy; it requires hard work, courage, time, and integrity. The authors call their definition of leadership the "single most significant message" of their book: "Treat your people like adults and they will respond like adults, conscientiously and creatively. Treat them with contempt and they will respond with contempt for you and your product." Attention to detail, integrity, and passion are the keys to success.

Peters, Thomas J., and Robert Waterman, Jr. 1984. *In Search of Excellence.* New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.

The authors studied 62 U.S. companies to account for their unusual success, and found 8 commonalities. First, they share a *bias for action,* which is exemplified by the phrase, "ready, fire, aim." Second, they stay *close to the customer,* a commitment at every level of the organization. Third, they encourage *autonomy and entrepreneurship,* through decentralization, and a pro-risk orientation. Fourth, they encourage *productivity through people,* showing a concern for people and personal growth. Fifth, a "*hands-on," value-driven* approach emphasizes shared values and company culture. Sixth, they stay close to their expertise when expanding into new areas. Seventh, *simple form, lean staff* keep structure and bureaucracy to a minimum and allow divisions to function as semiautonomous units. And eighth, *simultaneous loose/tight properties* that combine central control, a primarily shared value system and culture, with considerable decentralization, autonomy, and entrepreneurship.

Pinchot, Gifford. 1985. *Intrapreneuring: Why You Don't Have to Leave the Corporation to Become an Entrepreneur.* New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.

Intrapreneurs (intracorporate entrepreneurs) are "dreamers who do," who take personal risks to speed innovation. They work for personally meaningful ends, but their energy also benefits the organization. Freedom and personal achievement, not power or money, motivate. They possess intuition, analytical abilities, and a passion to see their visions become reality. They are goal setters with good business sense. Pinchot urges intrapreneurs to follow their intuition, to work underground as long as possible, and to honor their sponsors. Pinchot challenges management to empower intrapreneurs and to provide appropriate rewards, not necessarily promotion. Successful intrapreneurs may make poor managers, because of political naivete, minimal interpersonal skills, exceeding authority, and preoccupation with their work. Managers empower intrapreneurs by sponsoring and providing rewards of discretionary time and "intracapital." Sponsors tolerate failure; are patient; protect; and align corporate and intrapreneurial interests.

Unit V. Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Fisher, Roger, and William Ury. 1981. *Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In.* Edited by Bruce Patton. New York: Penguin Press.

This book is based on research by the Harvard Negotiation Project. The authors present a step-by-step method for reaching mutually acceptable solutions,

and tell the reader how to separate the people from the problem, and the importance of focusing on interests rather than positions.

Levin, Edward, and R. V. Denenberg. 1984. *Alliances and Coalitions.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

The terms "alliance" and "coalition" may be applied to any combination of two or more persons or groups joined together to achieve a common objective, wherein partners keep their separate identities while working together. In understanding how alliances and coalitions form, function, succeed, and fail, the authors point out, "One must decide when you need these valuable tools [alliances and coalitions] and how to form them, if you do. Individuality is not always an asset. The sense of powerlessness one may experience may be a function of isolation." Second, one must learn how to distinguish the potential allies from the most likely opponents. Not everyone will join together with the same goal in mind, or see it through when the going gets tough. Finally, knowing how to exploit the strengths of coalition bargaining makes it possible to defeat a seemingly powerful array of opponents.

Mulford, Charles L. 1984. *Interorganizational Relations: Implications for Community Development.* New York: Human Sciences Press.

Mulford conceptualizes the community as a system of interorganizational relations, and draws some practical implications that include strategies for managing these connections.

Mulford, Charles L., and Gerald E. Klonglan. 1982. *Creating Coordina- tion Among Organizations: An Orientation and Planning Guide.* NCRE Publ. No. 80. Ames: North Central Regional Resource Center, University of Iowa.

The authors present a 10-step model of coordination that is theoretically sound and practically useful. The 12-page narrative is accompanied by a 4-page worksheet.

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Leader's Guide

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Published by the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service
and the Department of Adult and Community College Education
North Carolina State University, Raleigh

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Leader's Guide for Module 5: Working With Groups and Organizations

How to Use Module 5

Module 5 is divided into four parts: a Sourcebook, a Leader's Guide, a Learners' Packet, and Instructional Aids. Before presenting the Module, please read the Sourcebook and carefully review the remaining materials.

The Leader's Guide contains instructions for teaching each of the five units in Module 5. In each unit, these instructions are organized into two parts: a preparation page (containing an overview, instructional objective, a glossary of terms, and a list of needed supplies and materials), and a sequential guide for presenting the materials. An annotated list of optional films and videotapes is at the end of the Leader's Guide.

The Learners' Packet includes, for each unit, an introduction (with overview, objective, and glossary), a self-assessment instrument, worksheets, case studies, and TIP (short for Theory in Practice) Sheets—one or two-page "how-tos."

The Instructional Aids include a videotape, slides, a game package, and masters for producing overhead transparencies. Suggestions about when to use the various aids are in the Leader's Guide.

Workshop Overview

Purpose

To provide the conceptual foundation and practical skills needed to work effectively with groups and organizations.

Audience

Extension staff members in all program areas and at all organizational levels.

Unit Objectives and Time Allotted

Introduction (1 hour)

Unit I. Networking (4 hours)
To build networking knowledge and skills.

Unit II. Communicating One-to-One (3 hours)
To build interpersonal power through effective communication.

Unit III. Moving Up and Down and In and Out Through Groups (4 hours)
To build understanding of group dynamics and skills to facilitate group processes.

Unit IV. Making Sense of Organizations (3 hours)
To build understanding of organizations, in general, and Extension, in particular.

Unit V. Facilitating Interorganizational Relations (3 hours)
To build skills in interorganizational relations.

Size of Group

The minimum number of workshop participants is 12. We recommend a maximum number of 40.

Number of Leaders

Two leaders are recommended to present these materials.

Room Size and Layout

The meeting room should be large enough to allow learners to move about unrestrictedly. Tables that can be arranged in a U-shape and easily separated for small group work are ideal.

Countdown Before the Workshop

Three months prior to workshop:

Make room reservation.

Request equipment

- Overhead projector
- Slide projector
- Screen
- Easels, newsprint pads
- Videotape deck
- Film projector
- Reserve optional films and videotapes.
- Watch or bell

Six weeks prior to workshop:

Mail preregistration packet to learners.

One month prior to workshop:

Verify equipment.

Confirm room reservation.

Two weeks prior to workshop:

Check plans and make needed adjustments.

Sample Agenda

Day 1	
9:30–10:00	Registration, Coffee
10:00–11:00	Welcome and Orientation
11:00–12:00	Unit I. Networking
12:00–1:00	Lunch
1:00–3:00	Unit I, completed
3:00–3:30	Break
3:30–5:00	Unit II. Comunicating One-to-One
Day 2	
8:00–9:30	Unit II, completed
9:30–10:00	Break
10:00–12:00	Unit III. Moving Up and Down and In and Out Through Groups
12:00–1:30	Lunch
1:30–3:30	Unit III, continued
3:30–4:00	Break
4:00–5:00	Unit III, completed
Day 3	
8:00–10:00	Unit IV. Making Sense of Organizations
10:00–10:30	Break
10:30–11:30	Unit IV, completed
11:30–12:30	Lunch
12:30–2:30	Unit V. Facilitating Interorganizational Relations
2:30–3:00	Break
3:00–4:00	Unit V, completed
4:00–4:30	Evaluation

Introduction and Orientation: Module 5

Overview

This in-service education workshop will not fully mold an effective group worker, because the experience and knowledge needed far exceed the 18 hours available. Since the content is necessarily selective, we begin by sharing the assumptions that guided development of the Module. (1 hour)

Resources

Sourcebook, "Orientation and Overview"

Leader-Learner Contract (Learners' Packet)

Slides 1 through 13 (Instructional Aids)

Purpose and Assumptions

Slide 1

Module 5: Working With Groups and Organizations	*Review title of Module 5.*

Slide 2

Purpose: To provide the conceptual foundation and practical skills needed to work effectively with groups and organizations	*Discuss purpose of Module 5.* Include information from the Overview.

Slide 3

Unit Objectives	The next several slides provide an advance organizer of the objectives of Module 5.

Slide 4

Unit I. Networking To build networking knowledge and skills	Unit I provides an in-depth look at patterns of connections, called *networks*, and the process called *networking*.

Slide 5

Unit II. Communicating One-to-One

To build interpersonal power through effective communication

In Unit II, the focus is on the most elementary and important relationship in a network, the interpersonal connection.

Slide 6

Unit III. Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

To build understanding of group dynamics and skills to facilitate group processes

In Unit III, we introduce the small group, a small bounded network.

Slide 7

Unit IV. Making Sense of Organizations

To build understanding of organizations, in general, and Extension, in particular.

In Unit IV, the focus is on a unit that is more complex than the group.

Slide 8

Unit V. Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

To build skills in interorganizational relations.

In Unit V, we explore interorganizational relations as a special application of networking.

Slide 9

Assumptions guiding Module 5 development

Slide 10

Assumption 1:
Groupwork requires conceptual knowledge and practical methodology

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Slide 11

As the Extension worker said to the children running over his new (wet) cement sidewalk: "I like children in the abstract, but not in the concrete."

Here is one exception to the "rule" we just stated.

Slide 12

Assumption 2:
Working *with* groups and organizations (not doing things *to* them or *for* them)

Taking the title of Module 5 literally has several implications: that we *facilitate* the group process; that we *respect* local knowledge; and that we *help* people help themselves.

Slide 13

Assumption 3:
Learning is an interactive process.

Leader-Learner Contract

Before beginning Unit I, we would like to review and sign the **Leader-Learner Contract** (in Learners' Packet). We believe that learning is an interactive process between leader and learner (and among learners), and that all parties have rights and responsibilities. Review and negotiate, if necessary, before signing.

Unit I. Networking

Overview

Networking is a purposeful process of acquiring resources by linking together two or more persons, groups, or organizations. Networking is an essential skill for the Extension professional. Unit I provides an experiential introduction to networking concepts and strategies, and an opportunity to apply networking principles. (4 hours)

Objective

—To build networking knowledge and skills.

Glossary

Boundary spanner: a player who connects two networks by transmitting information, technology, or other resources.

Central: network member with the most connections to all others.

Direct contact: firsthand source of information.

Dyad: a two-unit subsystem within a network.

Exchange: a resource transaction between two or more network members.

Formal network: a network characterized by primarily vertical flows of resources.

Indirect contact: secondhand source of information.

Informal network: a network characterized by primarily horizontal flows of resources.

Information: resource based in knowledge or data.

Interpersonal power: springs from connections with others.

Isolate: network member connected by few ties.

Legitimacy: resource (also known as *support*)that shows conformity with accepted standards.

Linkage: path between network members and conduit for resource exchange.

Network: a system of exchange among three or more social entities (people, groups, organizations, or others).

Networking: a purposeful process of acquiring resources or building power by linking two or more persons, groups, or organizations.

Norm of reciprocity: informal rule of fair play.

Opinion leader: network member with ties to many other networks, but not usually a central in own network.

Personal power: springs from the ability to act or from personal qualities that others value.

Positional power: springs from the ability to control another person via power vested in a position; also called *authority.*

Power: ability to act or command resources.

Resource: the "stuff" being exchanged during networking; of value in itself or for what it can accomplish.

Rules of the game: laws, regulations, mores, norms, customs, or values.

Similarity network: a kind of network in which interactions are based on likenesses.

Strategy: plan of action.

Strong ties: repetitive social relationships with high emotional intensity.

Transaction network: a type of network in which interactions are based on differences or complementarity.

Weak ties: Infrequent social contacts that allow one to tap into new resources.

Resources Needed for Unit I

Markers, easels, newsprint pads

Video monitor and player; screen; overhead slide projector

Slides 14 through 38 (Instructional Aids)

TIP Sheets 1 through 3 (Learners' Packet)

Worksheet 1 (Learners' Packet)

Posters 1 and 2 (Instructional Aids)

Game package for "Birds of a Feather" (Instructional Aids)

Two sheets of newsprint. Write "birds of a feather flock together" on the first, and "opposites attract" on the second.

Case Study 1: Tomato IPM Monitoring Program (Learners' Packet)

Self-Assessment:: Networking (Learners' Packet)

Sourcebook, Unit I

Introduction

Self-Assessment: Networking

Ask learners to complete Part A of the instrument.

Statements on newsprint:

"birds of a feather flock together"

"opposites attract"

Exercise: "Before getting into the 'nuts and bolts' of networking, let us talk about your personal experience in networks."

Ask learners to select which of the sayings (posted on newsprint on opposite sides of the room) best describes their personal experience in networks. Have those who believe that "birds of a feather flock together" stand by that statement; those who believe "opposites attract" stand by that statement. Ask learners why they are standing where they are. Following discussion, allow them to change positions, if they wish. Ask them why they changed, or why not.
Conclusion: networks form both because people are alike and because they are different.

Slide 14

Unit I.
Networking

Review the title of Unit I.

Slide 15

Objective:
To build networking knowledge and skills

An in-depth look at patterns of connections called networks and the process called networking.

"Nuts and Bolts"

Slide 16

1. What is a network?
2. What is networking?
3. Why are networks and networking important?
4. How do we describe networks?
5. What are some principles of networking?

Questions to be answered in Unit I.

Slide 17

1. What is a network?	There are many ways to define a network.

Slide 18

Anything reticulated and decussated at equal distances with interstices at the intersections.	In the seventeenth century, Samuel Johnson offered one of the first formal definitions of a network.

Slide 19

Informal and personal system of contact.	In the 1970s and 1980s, network has come into less formal usage as an . . .

Slide 20

A system of exchange among three or more social entities (people, groups, organizations).	Module developer's definition.

Slide 21

2. What is networking?	

Slide 22

Networking: A process of acquiring resources by using or creating linkages between two or more persons, groups, or organizations.	Read.

Slide 23

Resources: The "stuff" being exchanged, of intrinsic value or for what it can accomplish.	What resources are acquired during networking? Ask learners to identify types of resources (be certain not to forget intangibles, such as space and time).

Slide 24

3. Why are networks and networking important for Extension?

At least three reasons.

Slide 25

World View
Extension Tool
Extension Role

Slide 26

World View:
Everything is connected to everything else.

The "network" is a useful way to view an increasingly complex world. A change in one part brings changes in other parts (perspective, paradigm, metaphor).

Slide 27

Extension Tool:
Getting things done
—for our clientele
—for our own system.

Networking is a powerful tool for getting things done in Extension—for both our own system, and for our clientele. Networks are the means by which we obtain the resources we must have to survive. [Refer to poster 1.]

Slide 28

Networks build power.

Networks also are a means of generating power. The power of networks is built on a base of personal and interpersonal power. People have personal power by virtue of their ability to command resources, whether information, staff, materials, money, or even personal time and human energy. *Every* person has potential personal power because all intentional actions generate power [refer to poster 2]. People have interpersonal power by virtue of their connections with others.

Personal and interpersonal power have a special payoff in networks because they are magnified many times. Network power is thus abundant, widely distributed, and increased by sharing.

Slide 29

Extension Roles:
Boundary Spanner
Facilitator

A *boundary spanner* is a person who connects two or more networks by transmitting resources. A *network facilitator* is a person who assists people, groups, or organizations in their networking and power-building efforts.

Slide 30

4. How do we describe networks?

There are many ways to describe networks. We will focus on one continuum.

Slide 31

Transaction/Similarity

Slide 32

Transaction networks:
Based on differences

In transaction networks ("opposites attract"), people interact because they are different. Ask learners to identify some transaction networks (e.g., Extension agent and client, customer and retail clerk.)

Slide 33

Similarity networks:
Based on likenesses.

In similarity networks ("birds of a feather"), people interact because they are alike (shared purpose, age, gender, ethnicity, occupation). Ask learners to identify similarity networks (e.g., commodity groups, professional associations). We like people who are like us and who like us.

Slide 34

What are some principles of networking?

Intentionality
Reciprocity
Complementarity
Spannability

We will discuss each.

Slide 35

Principle 1: Intentionality

"Networking for What?"

"Purposeful networking is most effective. Always know your own goals and the resources you need."

Slide 36

Principle 2: Reciprocity

"Fair Trade"

Informal norm: "You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours."

Slide 37

Principle 3: Complementarity

"Yin and Yang"

By minimizing duplication of skills, and matching weaknesses with strengths, power is maximized. (Related concepts: symbiosis, mutuality)

Slide 38

Principle 4: Spannability

"Strength of Weak Ties"

Networking allows us to reach beyond our immediate circle of contacts to a greatly expanded sphere that includes the contacts of our contacts. We call the people with whom we have one-to-one contact *direct ties. Indirect ties* are mediated or facilitated by another person. A related concept is the "strength of weak ties." *Strong ties* involve frequent, repetitive interaction with high emotional intensity, such as between friends, kin, close colleagues. *Weak ties*, although less frequent in contact and emotional content, can provide remarkable returns. For example, they are more likely than strong ties to lead job hunters to success because they tap into new information sources. Long-distance contacts can be maintained with less time and energy than more proximate contacts. In both cases, weak ties provide returns that exceed the time invested in them

Summary: The next exercise, "Birds of a Feather," will help you experience a network.

Activity: Birds of a Feather

Purpose

To provide an experiential introduction to networking concepts and strategies, and to help learners to become better acquainted. (1 hour)

Preparation

1. Check game package to see if it is complete. It should include:

- 72 resource cards

Quantity	Front	Back
10	birds	picture of parrot
2	birds	picture of dodo
12	flock	picture of bending bird
10	together	picture of standing bird
2	together	picture of dodo
11	feather	picture of parrot
1	feather	picture of dodo
11	a	picture of ostrich
1	a	picture of dodo
11	of	picture of ostrich
1	of	picture of dodo

- 36 pins (or badges) with three of each of the following letters: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L (one letter per pin or badge). Letters A through E should have red background. Letters F through L should have blue background.

- 12 copies of Team Scoring Sheet

- Red and blue wipeable markers.

- Posters:
  1. Network Chart 1
  2. Round 1 Rules
  3. Bonus Point Chart
  4. Scoring Summary
  5. Round 2 Rules
  6. Network Chart 2

2. Arrange resource cards into sets of 6 as follows:

Team	Words	Cards
A	birds	6 (one dodo)
B	flock	6
C	together	6 (one dodo)
D	feather	6
E	a	6
F	of	6
G	birds	6 (one dodo)
H	of	6 (one dodo)
I	a	6 (one dodo)
J	feather	6 (one dodo)
K	flock	6
L	together	6 (one dodo)

Implementation

1. Post: Network Chart 1, Round 1 Rules, Bonus Point Chart, Scoring Summary.

2. Divide large group into 12 teams. Teams may be one person or more. If there are fewer than 24 participants, some teams will consist of only one person.

3. Distribute pins lettered from A to L to identify each team. Teams A through E receive red pins. Teams F through L receive blue pins. Provide duplicate pins for each member of the team.

4. Explain that each team is a part of a network. There are two networks. Red pins (A through E) signify membership in Red Network. Blue pins (F through L) signify membership in Blue Network 2.

5. Distribute sets of six resource cards to each team.

6. Explain to the teams: "The purpose of this activity is to help you experience networking, and become better acquainted. The game will be played in two rounds. Each team has six cards that represent six resources. These resources have a value equal to the total number of letters on each card. For example, the word "birds" has five letters (five points) which is of greater value than the word "of" (two points). In this case, the value of a resource conveys power.

Round 1

1. Explain: "The purpose of this round is to replicate (or duplicate) a network. Exchange cards according to Network Chart 1. Each of the 12 teams is shown on this chart. One-way arrows mean that you give, but do not receive a card. Two-way arrows mean that you give a card *and* receive a card." [Ask one team to find themselves on the chart and to indicate whether their exchanges will be

one-way or two-way.] "The outcome is predetermined. Therefore, this is not the time to strategize. You can strategize in Round 2. In this round, we want to see how well you can follow directions and rules. You may choose to have one person trade for the whole team, or to involve the whole team."

2. Read "Round 1 Rules" poster. Begin trading.

   After trades are completed, ask teams to total their number of letters at the bottom of column B of Team Scoring Sheet. Ask teams to add bonus points according to the Bonus Point poster. Explain bonus points: "Not all resources are of equal value. Sometimes it is the combination or arrangement of resources that confers power." Compare totals on Team Scoring Sheet with those on the Scoring Summary Poster. If points do not match, find out what happened. Most likely, the team did not follow directions.

Discussion:

1. Did both networks start with equal value in resources? [No–Network Red had a value of 156. Network Blue had a value of 180.]

   How is this like or unlike real life? [Any answer will do.]

2. Did both networks end up with equal value in resources? [No]

   Red Network = 327 Blue Network = 388

   How is this like or unlike real life? [Any answer will do.]

3. Note that Blue Network began with more valuable resources and ended in an even more advantageous position.

   How is this like or unlike real life? [Any answer will do.]

Round 2

1. Post: Network Chart 2, Round 2 Rules posters. Explain: "The goal of Round 2 is to score the most points."

2. Read: "Round 2 Rules" poster.

3. Scores will be computed as before, but remember that some teams now have "Fowl Play" cards. Life can be unfair. As with the unfortunate dodo bird, some teams may even become extinct.

4. Ask boundary spanners to stand: teams A and E in Red Network; teams G and F in Blue Network. These teams must physically handle exchanges between networks.

5. Give teams five minutes to plan their strategy for Round 2. Begin exchange. Call time after 15 minutes.

6. After calling time, ask teams to record words in column C of Team Scoring Sheet and then add total points. Transfer to Scoring Summary poster [It helps to have volunteers assist leaders in recording points on the Scoring Summary Poster and verify accuracy.] Compute network scores for Round 2.

Discussion:

1. Did all teams develop a strategy? [Most teams will develop a strategy or plan of action.]

   What kind of strategies did they develop?

   What happens when networking occurs without strategies? [Exchanges become chaotic and unmanageable.]

   Why don't strategies always work? [Many people are after the same unpredictable resource, time.]

2. How do time and energy restrict the formation of networks? [Networks take time and energy to create and maintain.]

3. Why are boundary spanners important? [Boundary spanners connect two or more networks, transferring resources and monitoring the flow of information.]

   Is it always advantageous to be a boundary spanner? [No.] If not, why not? [Boundary spanning can be stressful and time-consuming. Boundary spanners often are put in the role of mediator or negotiator. They may suffer information overload or lack a clear network identity.]

   Are you or is Extension a boundary spanner?

4. Did all teams follow rules? [Some teams usually break the rules. Their desire for power may exceed their desire to play fairly. Others may not remember or understand the rules.]

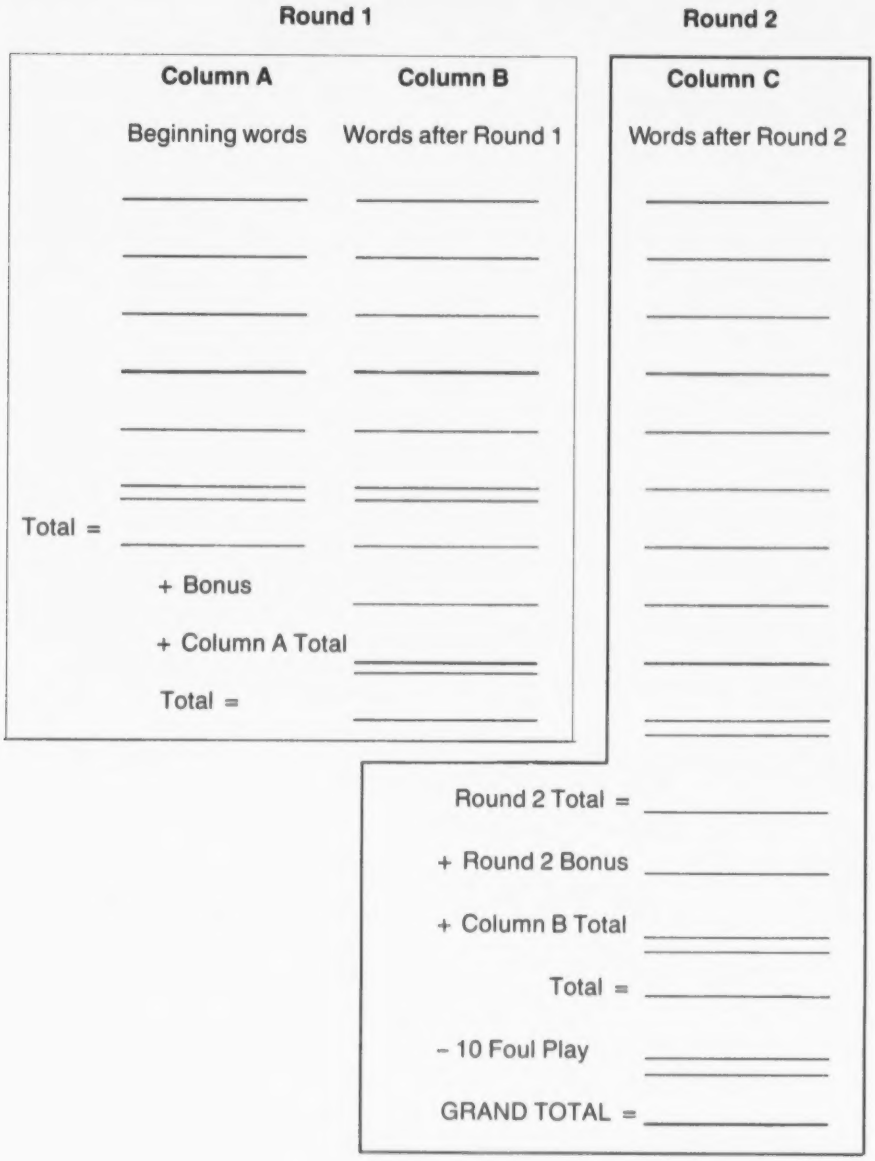
5. Were any teams eliminated? [Usually.] If so, why? [During networking, resources and risks are distributed unequally. Uncalculated risks can benefit one team while restricting or eliminating another. Some teams lose in the competition for scarce resources. Some have poor strategies, bad luck, limited time or energy; are in the wrong place at the wrong time; or are taken advantage of. Life in networks is sometimes unfair. If teams start with inadequate resources or connections, not even the best strategy will make them winners.] Which teams believe that they started with uneven resources?

6. How does this game apply to your work? [Any answer will do.]

   How is networking easy or difficult in your work?

7. How effectively did members of each team work together?

Team Scoring Sheet



Working Networks

Exercise: Networking for Information

Key Points on Newsprint

1.
2.
3.
4.

Explain: "The purpose of the next exercise is to practice networking and network charting." Review networking principles (list key points on newsprint.

1. *Intentionality.* Always ask, 'Networking for what? What are your goals, or what resources do you need?' Unfocused networking depletes energy with little return.

2. *Reciprocity* (or fair trade). Always offer to return the favor.

3. *Complementarity.* Always know your own and others' strengths and weaknesses.

4. *Spannability.* Remember the potential of indirect contacts.

Worksheet 1:
Charting Your Constellation

Ask learners to read the "Inventory Resources" section of Worksheet 1, and allow a few minutes to complete the resource inventory. Explain that they will practice networking for one kind of resource: information. Ask them to read the section, "Networking for Information," in Worksheet 1. Provide an example of how you have networked for information, and chart your constellation on newsprint as you proceed. Remember, you are the star that has found a resource. [Sketch your constellation in pencil ahead of time, and retrace with marker when presenting.] Relate some of the following tips, or others, to your example.

1. Assume most people want to be helpful.

2. Be systematic; this is only one method—use what works best for you.

3. Follow up indirect contacts.

4. Validate your source (tell who provided you their name).

5. If you get a "no," try to get some other type of help—another resource, or future assistance.

Give learners 15 minutes to network for information among other learners. According to Worksheet 1, they should introduce themselves and chart their constellation as they proceed, recording their contacts as direct, indirect, direct and indirect, or dead ends. During this time, locate a volunteer who is willing to share (chart) his or her constellation on newsprint for the group.

TIP Sheet 1:
Conferencing

Encourage learners to continue networking during breaks, because conferences and workshops are custommade for networking. Review TIP Sheet 1, "Conferencing," for some pointers.

Exercise: Networking for Group Members

Explain: "The last activity was an example of working a network from the inside/out. You were the star. The same process can be used in reverse; that is, the network can be worked from the outside/in. This approach is useful for recruiting a particular person to a group, such as an advisory council or board."

Draw an example of this procedure on newsprint.

TIP Sheet 2:
Networking for Group Members

For additional pointers, refer learners to TIP Sheet 2, "Networking for Group Members."

TIP Sheet 3:
Networking Checklist

Summary. Networking can make our lives easier because it allows us to give a little, and get a lot. Reinforce major points in Unit I by referring to TIP Sheet 3, "Networking Checklist."

Case Study 1:
Tomato IPM Monitoring Program

Optional Case Study 1. "Understanding must precede application. For networks to which we do not belong, this may mean research. Obviously, we do not need a map on roads we travel every day. A gap separates most network research and application. When this gap is bridged, as in Case Study 1, research can reveal new paths from one place to another, or powerful cliques that can help or hinder us." Ask learners to work in small groups to interpret the research findings. If they have questions about the

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concepts, refer them to the glossary. [There are no "right" answers to the questions.]

Self-Assessment: Networking

Ask learners to complete Parts B and C of the instrument.

Unit II. Communicating One-to-One

Overview

Extension's network draws its vitality from strong interpersonal connections established by each Extension worker. Effective communication is the surest way to maintain strong connections. Unproductive relationships can be strengthened or abandoned. (3 hours)

Objective

—To build interpersonal power through effective communication.

Glossary

Aggressive behavior: physically or verbally attacking another.

Assertiveness: standing up for oneself through communication that is direct, honest, and spontaneous.

Closed questions: questions that deter discussion because they can be answered in just a few words.

Door closers: words or actions that close communication channels.

Door openers: words or actions that open communication channels.

Empathy: the ability to put oneself in the place of another.

"I"-message: a direct, immediate, and honest statement of needs and limits.

Initiation: an assertive statement of one's needs or wants.

Interactive style: characteristic pattern of communication based on one's relative degree of sensitivity and assertiveness.

Minimal encouragers: short utterances or nonverbal gestures that urge the speaker to continue talking by providing reassurance that the message is being heard.

Open questions: questions that cannot be answered easily with a "yes," or "no," or other short, specific answer.

Passive behavior: silence or a light dismissal, even when another's behavior is offensive or inconvenient.

Positive confrontation: a strategy for dealing with another person's behavior with which you are uncomfortable.

Reflection: a response that demonstrates acceptance and understanding of a message by capturing the speaker's feelings as well as content of the message.

Sensitivity: extent to which actions are based on caring about people and their feelings.

Setting limits: an assertive statement by which one says "no" to the requests or demands of others.

Strength: the intensity of the message (feelings or importance).

"You"-message: a nonassertive, often aggressive statement about another's behavior that involves blame, moralizing, and put-down.

Resources for Unit II

Markers, easels, newsprint pads

Screen; overhead projector; video monitor and player

Transparencies 1 through 9 (Instructional Aids)

TIP Sheets 4 through 11 (Learners' Packet)

Worksheets 2 through 11 (Learners' Packet)

Summary Sheets 1 through 4 (Learners' Packet)

Videotape: "Murray Takes a Workshop" (Instructional Aids)

Self-Assessment: Communicating One-to-one (Learners' Packet)

Sourcebook, Unit II

Introduction

Self-Assessment: Communicating One-to-One

Ask learners to complete Part A of instrument.

Transparency 1

Unit II. Communicating One-to-One

Review the title of Unit II.

Transparency 2

Objective: To build interpersonal power through effective communication

Discuss the objective of Unit II.

Transparency 3

Sensitivity + Assertiveness = Effective communication

Most definitions of communication are complex. Our definition of effective communication is simple. In Unit II, we will first discuss sensitivity, then assertiveness, and, finally, how the two are best combined.

Worksheet 2: Effective Communication

The same word may mean different things to different people. This is especially true for words that are "emotionally loaded." Ask learners how the words *sensitive* and *assertive* make them feel, and to record their feelings. Next, ask them to discuss their respective feelings with a partner, and to record some of those feelings.

Transparency 4

Sensitivity

Define and discuss sensitivity. Involves the ability to receive messages.

Transparency 5

Assertiveness

Define and discuss assertiveness. Involves sending messages—directly, honestly, and immediately.

Sensitive Communication

Transparency 6

Open Doors

Introduction "It may help to think of sensitive communicators as door openers.

Transparency 7

Closed Doors

However, many communicators are more like door closers."

Generate list of door closers

Ask learners, in groups of three or four, to identify ways in which we close doors on communciation. After 10 minutes or so, ask for feedback and record responses on newsprint. [You may wish to add the following if not mentioned: avoiding, solving, judging.]

Generate list of door openers

Next, ask groups to identify ways in which communicators can open doors. [You may put Transparency 6 back on.] Again, ask for feedback and record responses on newsprint. [You may wish to add some of the following if not mentioned: being genuine, self-aware, self-expressing, self-accepting, fair, trustworthy, honest, reliable, tolerant, accepting, respectful, forgiving, and using appropriate touch or eye contact.]

TIP Sheet 4: Increasing Sensitivity

"Sensitive communicators use their ears, eyes, voice, appropriate touch, and even intuition. We will examine three different strategies for increasing sensitivity: stop/look/listen, active listening, and suspending judgment. Each strategy is summarized in TIP Sheet 4, 'Increasing Sensitivity.'"

Videotape:
"Murray Takes a Workshop."

"Active listening is a way to increase sensitivity by using eyes and voice to supplement ears. Three techniques are: minimal encouragers, open questions, and reflection. Unfortunately, many people have hangups about sensitivity, or are not skilled listeners. Murray, the star of the following videotape, has both of these problems." Show "Murray Takes a Workshop." [*Note:* Some viewers have expressed concern about negative stereotypes in the videotape. The developer believes the positives of the videotape outweigh the negatives. You may wish to make your own judgment.]

Worksheet 3:
Open Questions

Divide learners into small groups to work through Worksheet 3, "Open Questions." Ask them to review TIP Sheet 4, as needed.

Worksheet 4:
Reflection

Ask the same groups to work through Worksheet 4, "Reflection." Refer to TIP Sheet 4, as needed.

Worksheet 5:
Stop, Look, and Listen

"Another way to increase sensitivity is to remember the instructions offered young children: stop, look, listen." Show segments from "Murray Takes a Workshop" [Scene 1: "The Investigation," or some other videotape of your own choosing]. Ask learners to complete Worksheet 5, "Stop, Look, and Listen," and to refer to TIP Sheet 4, as needed.

"Premature judging, or jumping to conclusions, is a major door closer. The ability to suspend judgment, even temporarily, can be a valuable skill for the Extension worker." Ask learners to review section on TIP Sheet 4. Then, in small groups, ask them to share instances where the ability to suspend judgment would be valuable for Extension, or where the inability has been damaging, and so forth.

Assertive Communication

Tip Sheet 5:
Communicating Assertively

Opening: "Assertiveness is the other major dimension of effective communication. *Assertiveness* means standing up for oneself through direct, honest, and

spontaneous communication. Assertiveness involves sending messages and either initiating (getting what you want), or limit setting (not getting what you don't want)."

Transparency 8

Passive/Assertive/ Aggressive Continuum

Distinguish assertive from passive and aggressive behavior. Ask learners to read the first half of the first page of TIP Sheet 5, "Communicating Assertively." To reinforce, ask learners to identify the negative effects of both passive and aggressive behaviors. Record responses on newsprint.

Worksheet 6: Bad Scenes

Next, ask them to review the second half of the first page of TIP Sheet 5 and complete Worksheet 6, "Bad Scenes." Remind them to use the guidelines for "I"-messages outlined in TIP Sheet 5 in constructing their assertive message.

Bad Scene 1 [example]:

Passive: You complain to others about Jack's rudeness.

Aggressive: You sarcastically upbraid Jack at a program-planning meeting, saying, "I see you're prepared as well as usual."

Assertive: You tell Jack over lunch, "I'm upset about program planning. I feel you are not carrying your load. As a consequence, I'm working extra evenings to stay even, and we still show little progress from one committee meeting until the next."

Bad Scene 2 [example]:

Passive: Give Susan a disgusted look.

Aggressive: The next time Susan is late, you say: "Susan, I've had it with you. Who do you think you are? You're the most inconsiderate person I've ever met."

Assertive: Visit with Susan before the next meeting. Say, "I feel you are taking our relationship for granted. I'm angry

that you are repeatedly late for staff meetings. I lose productive time and the morale of our entire team is undermined."

Bad Scene 3. How does being in the Extension role make a difference?

Worksheet 7:
Strength of Message

Strength of Message: "A little assertiveness goes a long way. Assertiveness may seem aggressive, if started at too high a level, or escalated too rapidly." Ask learners to read the first half of page 2 of TIP Sheet 5, "Communicating Assertively." To illustrate, consider the case of a noisy person in the theater:

Level 1. Could you please be less noisy?
Level 2. Could you *please* be less noisy? (Spoken with greater volumn.)
Level 3. If you don't be quiet, I will call the usher.
Level 4. Call the usher.

Next, ask the groups to construct assertive messages at each level of strength for Bad Scene 1 (or any other example you may wish to use).

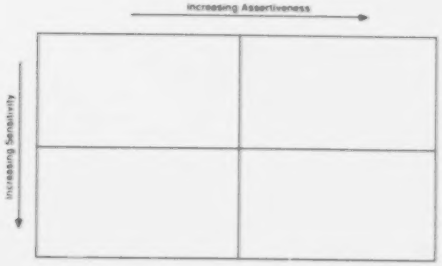
Setting Limits Exercise

Worksheet 8:
Saying No

Setting Limits Exercise "We also must asert so that we do not get what we do not want. Saying 'no' can be difficult but essential to accomplish our own goals." Ask learners to review the last half of page 2 of TIP Sheet 5, "Communicating Assertively," and to complete Worksheet 8, "Saying No." Ask for volunteers to share their responses to each of five situations.

Complete Communication

Transparency 9



Introduction "Considered simultaneously, assertiveness and sensitivity combine to form four distinct interactive styles. Style may be thoght of as an enduring pattern of interpersonal behavior." Introduce the four interactive styles by writing the following on the transparency. After each style, refer the learners to the appropriate Summary Sheet in the Learners' Packet.

Summary Sheets
1 through 4

Stoics: low sensitivity and low assertiveness (Summary Sheet 1).

Amiables: high sensitivity and low assertiveness. (Summary Sheet 2).

Drivers: low sensitivity and high assertiveness (Summary Sheet 3).

Expressives: high sensitivity and high assertiveness. (Summary Sheet 4).

Stress the following points (disclaimers):

1. This model is not to be taken too seriously; we use it to gain insight into peoples' behavior and to reinforce key concepts.

2. The styles are based on observable behaviors, and do not reveal anything about internal states (attitudes, values, or motives).

3. Tells us more about others than ourselves (since it is based on observables).

4. Some people have no readily observable style.

5. There is no "right" or "best" style [some learners will jump to this conclusion]. Successful people are found in each quadrant, as we will see in the next exercise.

Worksheet 9:
Interactive Styles

Ask learners to place the name of each person listed in the appropriate quadrant of Worksheet 9. They need not know all of the people listed. There is no list of "right" answers.

Worksheet 10:
Interactive Styles Indicator

First, ask learners to predict the style of a person they know well—a supervisor, a "difficult person," an adversary, a family member, a contact they want to cultivate. [Because this is based on observables, predictions of our own style are not advisable; we may ask others to determine our style.] *Tips:* consider each dimension separately; ask how this person responds to stress (under stress people tend to exaggerate their primary style).

	Next, ask learners to complete and score the instrument. Discuss. Were predictions accurate? Does the instrument provide a fair assessment of the person?
Tip Sheet 6: Style Strategies	Put main points of TIP Sheet 6, "Style Strategies," on newsprint. Ask learners to develop two or three strategies for interacting more successfully with the person identified in the style diagnosis. Ask learners to group themselves according to the style of the person selected [perhaps in the four corners of the room], and compare their notes.
TIP Sheet 7: Taking the Heat	Put main points of TIP Sheet 7, "Taking the Heat," on newsprint.
TIP Sheet 8: Positive Confrontation	Put main points of TIP Sheet 8, "Positive Confrontation," on newsprint.
Worksheet 11: Custom Application	Complete Worksheet 11, "Custom Application."
Self-Assessment: Communicating One-to-One	Ask learners to complete parts B and C of the instrument.

Unit III. Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Overview

An understanding of group dynamics is essential to facilitate the group process. In Unit III, we build this conceptual and practical foundation. (4 hours)

Objective

—To build understanding of group dynamics and skills to facilitate group processes.

Glossary

Consensus: decisionmaking method that requires widespread agreement (consent) among all concerned.

Facilitating: a process of assisting a group to reach its own goals.

Facilitator: a process specialist who guides a group.

Forming: first group phase, in which an aggregation of individuals begins to define their tasks, roles, and relationships.

Group: three or more people interacting to achieve a goal.

Group phases: sequential stages that groups tend to go through, over time.

Groupthink: when the tendency to agree interferes with critical thinking.

In group/out group bias: intergroup discrimination in favor of one's own group.

Majority rule: decisionmaking method in which agreement by 51 percent of the group members can determine the direction of the entire group.

Minority: one or more people in a group whose opinion differs from the majority.

Norming: third group phase, characterized by the development of cohesion and informal standards of acceptable and nonacceptable behaviors.

Norms: informal rules that regulate group behavior.

Performing: fourth group phase, characterized by mobilization of resources and task accomplishment.

Social loafing: tendency for people to exhibit a sizable decrease in individual effort when performing in a group as compared to individual performance.

Stereotype: an exaggerated belief associated with a category.

Storming: second group phase, characterized by idea generation and interpersonal tension.

Synergy: when the combined effects of cooperation between two or more persons produce an effect that exceeds the sum of what the individual members could do alone.

Taskwork: group work that is focused on achieving a goal.

Teamwork: the way people interact in the process of achieving a goal.

Transforming: fifth group phase, characterized by disbanding, reverting, or regrouping.

Resources Needed for Unit III

Markers, easels, newsprint pad

Screen; overhead projector; video monitor and player

Optional films: "Creative Problem Solving"; "Groupthink"; "The Abilene Paradox."

Optional videotape: "The Tale of 'O'"

Slides 39 through 60 (Instructional Aids)

TIP Sheets 9 through 21 (Learners' Packet)

Worksheets 12 through 14 (Learners' Packet)

Summary Sheet 5 (Learners' Packet)

Sourcebook, Unit III

Knowing the Flow

Self-Assessment: Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Ask learners to complete Part A of the instrument.

Introduction "Groups can be arenas for effective joint action or for social loafing, in which the group produces less then could be accomplished by the individual member acting alone." Post the words "joint action" and "social loafing" on sheets of newsprint on opposite sides of the room. Ask learners to array themselves on a continuum according to which description best describes their experience in working with groups.

Slide 39

Unit III. Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Review the title of Unit III.

Slide 40

Objective: To build understanding of group dynamics and skills to facilitate group processes

Discuss the objective of Unit III.

Slide 41

Group: Three or more people interacting to achieve a goal

Definition and discussion of groups.

Slide 42

Groups are: Powerful Complex

"Groups are powerful. The have the positive power to suppport individuals, and to promote joint action. On the other hand, they also have the power to exclude, alienate, isolate, or sanction members.

"Groups are complex. In a 4-member group there are 11 possible relationships (6 diads, 4 triads, and 1 quartet). Remember the saying, 'Two's company, three's a crowd.'

Slide 43

(Smiling bird in silhouette)

Slide 44

(Sad bird in silhouette)

Slide 45

Synergy

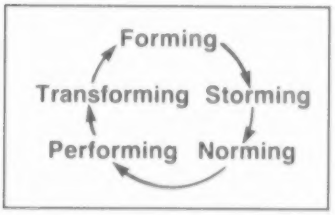
"The complexity can lead to *synergy* (joint action in which the total effort of the group can exceed the sum of the efforts of the individual members).

Slide 46

Confusion

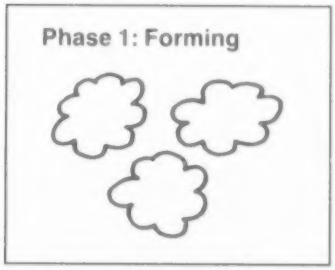
"Complexity also can lead to confusion.

Slide 47



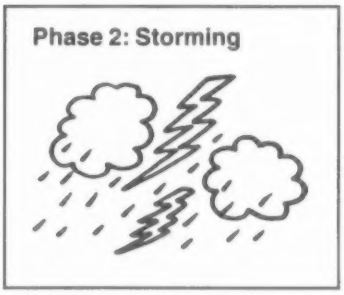
"Groups have a natural ebb and flow, which some people describe as a series of phases or stages called *forming*, *storming*, *norming*, *performing*, and *transforming*.

Slide 48



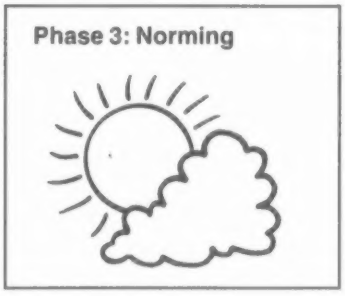
"During *forming*, a group is an aggregation of individuals coming together. Many things are going on—getting acquainted, defining group roles and rules, selecting a decisionmaking method, and setting goals.

Slide 49



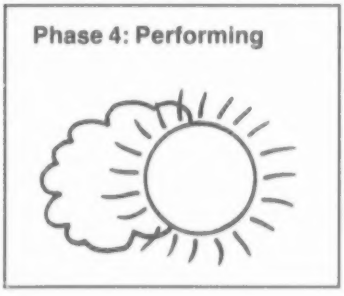
"Tension during storming not only is normal, but essential. Channel this energy into idea generation. Be aware that groups may bottom out: leaders may be challenged; members may withdraw; or overt conflicts may erupt.

Slide 50



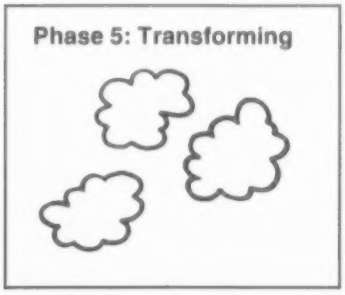
"During *norming*, cohesion grows and informal standards of acceptable behavior develop. A collection of individuals becomes a group. Taskwork and teamwork accelerate. Be aware of potential negative effects of overcooperation.

Slide 51



"*Performing* is characterized by resource mobilization and task accomplishment.

Slide 52



"*Transforming* is a phase characterized by change: reverting, regrouping, or disbanding.

Slide 53

Facilitating the Flow:
Assisting a group in reaching its own goals.

"A skilled group facilitator recognizes the phases, trusts the process, and intervenes only when essential.

Slide 54

Balancing Act

"Groupwork is a balancing act.

Slide 55

Taskwork
With
Teamwork

"The problem-solving process with the interpersonal process.

Slide 56

Needs of the Majority
With
Needs of the Minority

"While expedience demands that the majority rule, the minority stimulates creativity. Few groups can afford an uncommitted minority. A minority can be one or more persons.

Slide 57

Undercooperation
versus
Overcooperation

"'Footdragging' or conflict are symptoms of the first. The latter is manifested in groupthink.

Slide 58

Under-risk
versus
Over-risk

"Groups give us the power to take risks that we would be unable to take alone. The downside is becoming risk-averse and taking foolish risks, a phenomenon known as 'risky shift.'"

Slide 59

Bad Birdhouse

Summary. "Sometimes the best-laid plans of groups do not guarantee success.

Side 60

Good Birdhouse

"But with an understanding of group processes and the ability to facilitate these processes, while maintaining

balance among the tensions inherent in groups, the probabilities of success improve."

In the next section, specific tools to aid group facilitation are provided.

Facilitating the Flow

Worksheet 13:
Feelings During Forming

Small Group Work. Divide learners into small groups of seven to nine. Explain: "You will work in these groups throughout the rest of Unit III, and will resume working in the same groups during Unit IV. You will be given a group task and asked to demonstrate your understanding of the flow of groups and the art of facilitating by applying a number of tools for facilitators [TIP Sheets 9-19]. A critical aspect of forming is getting acquainted. To facilitate forming, please complete Worksheet 13, 'Feelings During Forming.'"

Summary Sheet 5:
Group Development Process

Next, review Summary Sheet 5. [The leader may wish to highlight aspects of this sheet.] Give learners 10 minutes to thumb through the TIP Sheets.

Role Assignment

Next, provide them an assignment: "The task of your group is to decide on the one best mixer to use during the forming phase. At the minimum, you will need to decide on a decisionmaking method, and use at least one idea-generating technique. We will assign you group roles. You are not to reveal these roles. You will have 30 minutes to complete your task."

Shuffle and distribute role assignments (written on sets of index cards). Note that some role assignments will not be distributed.

Facilitator (see TIP Sheets 9, 10, and 21)
Idea Person (see TIP Sheets 10, 15, and 16)
Quality Controller (see TIP Sheet 10)
Doer (See TIP Sheets 10 and 19)
Team Builder (See TIP Sheet 10 and Summary Sheet 5)
Chairperson/Leader (see TIP Sheets 10, 11, 12, and 13)
Recorder/Secretary (see TIP Sheet 10)

Overcooperator (see TIP Sheet 18
Difficult Person—pick your style (see TIP Sheet 19)
Minority Voice (see TIP Sheet 17)
Social Loafer
No Role

Questions on Newsprint
1.
2.
3.
4.

Questions for processing in small group (write questions on newsprint):

1. What roles were missing and with what consequences?
2. Did anyone get a role with which they were very uncomfortable?
3. Were the TIP Sheets valuable? How?
4. If you had a difficult person, what type?
5. Did members assume roles to which they were not assigned?

Report back to entire group: product (mixer) and process report. Ask regarding each role: "What were the positives and the negatives, and which missing roles were most missed? Was there any relationship between the composition of the group and the quality of the product?"

List on Newsprint

Summary. Generate a list of the ways in which facilitators and manipulators differ. Discuss the meaning of "trust the process."

Note to Instructor: This unit can be expanded, when additional time is available, in the following ways:

1. Show optional film, "Creative Problem Solving: Getting Better Ideas."

2. Show optional films or videotapes: "Groupthink", the "Abilene Paradox" (deals with overcooperation), or "Tale of 'O'" (deals with stereotyping, being different in an organization). Each of these resources relate to the norming phase of groups. Worksheet 13 is designed to accompany "Groupthink."

Worksheet 14:
Twelve Angry Men Review

3. Show videotape, "12 Angry Men." Worksheet 14, "Twelve Angry Men Review," is a synthesis of the concepts in Units I, II, and III. Ask small groups of learners first to review the 12 categories on Worksheet 14; view the videotape; and then complete the Worksheet. [The developer has had more success in showing the videotape in its entirety.]

Self-Assessment:
Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Ask learners to complete Parts B and C of the instrument.

Unit IV. Making Sense of Organizations

Overview

The complexity of groups is magnified many times in an organization. Understanding organizations is critical, because most of Extension's group work occurs in the context of organizations—Extension, in particular, and also in and with a diverse array of public and private organizations: *structural, cultural, people,* and *political.* (3 hours)

Objective

—To build understanding of organizations, in general, and Extension, in particular.

Glossary

Adaptability: ability to conform readily to new circumstances.

Adoptability: extent to which an innovation can be utilized readily.

Alignment: the fit between organizations and individual needs.

Centralized organization: focuses on shared meanings and values, as expressed in tradition, ceremony, logo, or myth.

Effectiveness: doing the "right" thing.

Efficiency: doing things right.

Formal organization: one with written, standardized rules and procedures.

Hierarchical networks: based on formal relationships in an organization, as shown in the organizational chart.

Horizontal complexity: number of functional departments or geographic locations.

Innovation: a new way of doing or organizing things.

Lateral information system: a system of horizontal information forms, resembling networks, with more linkages to the environment.

Participative networks: based on information relationships that are fluid and that cross administrative levels and departments.

People perspective: focuses on how organizations meet the needs of employees and how employees meet the needs of organizations.

Political perspective: concentrates on the distribution of scarce resources, and the struggle of people to maintain or increase their share of those resources.

Retrenchment: process that occurs in public service organizations when significant budget cuts take place.

Structural perspective: focuses on formal systems of roles and responsibilities.

Vertical complexity: number of layers in an organization.

Vertical information system: traditional hierarchical system of accountability and evaluation.

Resources Needed for Unit IV

Markers, easel, newsprint pad, tape

Screen; slide projector; video monitor and player

Optional videotape: "3M Vignette"

Slides 61 through 67 (Instructional Aids)

TIP Sheet 22 (Learners' Packet)

Worksheets 15 through 19 (Learners' Packet)

Knapsackers Exercise (Learners' Packet)

Self-Assessment: Making Sense of Organizations (Learners' Packet)

Sourcebook, Unit IV

Self-Assessment:
Making Sense of Organizations

Ask learners to complete Part A of the instrument.

Slide 61

> **Unit IV.**
> Making Sense of Organizations

Review the title of Unit IV.

Slide 62

> **Objective:**
> To build an understanding of organizations, in general, and Extension, in particular

Discuss the objective of Unit IV.

Slide 63

> **Perspectives:**
> People
> Structure
> Culture
> Power

Organizations are much more complex than groups. *Four perspectives* will be used to make sense of them: *people*, *structure*, *culture*, and *power*.

Slide 64

> **Perspective 1:**
> Organizations As People

Perspective 1 focuses on how organizations meet the needs of employees and how employees meet the needs of organizations. Ask small groups of learners to discuss the following questions [written on newsprint]:

1. How should organizations meet the needs of people in the organization?
2. How should the Extension organization meet the needs of Extension staff?
3. How should Extension staff meet the needs of the Extension organization?

Encourage feedback from small groups.

Slide 65

Perspective 2:
Organizations As Structure

Perspective 2 focuses on formal systems of roles and responsibilities. Organizational chart shows: (1) formal legitimizers, (2) direction of power flow, (3) functional divisions.

Worksheet 15:
Organizational Structure

Use five yardsticks to measure structure: *formality* yardstick; *size* yardstick; *vertical complexity* yardstick, and *horizontal complexity* yardstick.

Organizational Chart Exercise

Optional. Ask small groups to draw an organizational chart for Extension in their state. Post. Do they show formal legitimizers? Direction of power flow? Functional divisions? What do they fail to show? [Informal flows of information, informal legitimizers.]

Slide 66

Perspective 3:
Organizations As Cultures

Perspective 3 focuses on shared meanings and values as expressed in *tradition, ceremony, logo,* or *myth.*

Worksheet 16:
Organizations As Cultures

Match the cultural element of Extension with its symbolic representation.

Slide 67

Perspective 4:
Organizations As Politics

Perspective 4 focuses on the struggle of people to maintain their share of scarce resources. Ask small groups to discuss the following questions [written on newsprint]:

1. What are the pros and cons of politics in organizations?

2. What politics are involved in your work?

Activity: Four Corners

Ask learners to sort themselves into the four corners of the room according to which perspective best describes how Extension operates.

	Questions:
Questions on newsprint: 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Which perspective do you think best describes Extension and why? What would your choice have been five years ago and why? What do you think your choice would be 10 years from now and why? Are some perspectives less useful than the others and why? What would be the ideal and why?

Making Change

Generate List of Sources of Change	Because organizations are structured for stability and predictability, organizational change, although inevitable, is rarely easy. Generate a list of *sources of change*.
Worksheet 17: Making Change	Organizations resist change for *people*, *political*, *structural*, and *cultural* reasons.
Worksheet 18: Degrees of Publicness	Locate Extension on the publicness grid.
Optional Videotape: "3M Vignette"	From the videotape, "In Search of Excellence."
Worksheet 19: Change in the Private Sector	What do the 3M anecdotes reveal: About culture? [3M culture celebrates innovation and commitment.] About structure? [Traditional authority is underplayed.] About people? [Employees are empowered and mistakes are accepted.]
Knapp-Sackers Exercise	The Knapp-Sackers Exercise is designed to test team resourcefulness. Assign or let small groups select one of the three task options. Ask them to review TIP Sheet 22 before beginning the exercise. Each group will be asked to present its assessment of the feasibility of gaining adoption of the innovation.
TIP Sheet 22: Innovation in Organizations	
Self-Assessment: Making Sense of Organizations	Ask learners to complete Parts B and C of the instrument.

Unit V. Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Overview

Working with other organizations is an important part of the Extension professional's role. To do so successfully requires an understanding of the benefits, costs, difficulties, and techniques of coordination. (3 hours)

Objective

—To build skills in interorganizational relations.

Glossary

Action set: purposive coalitions of organizations working together to accomplish a specific purpose.

Administrative linkages: fiscal practices; personnel practices; joint planning, delivery, and evaluation; and administrative service.

Assisters: factors that promote coordination.

Domain consensus: agreement by each of the parties that coordination is legitimate.

Interorganizational coordination: a process whereby two or more organizations create or use existing decision-making rules to deal collectively with a shared task environment.

Interorganizational relations: connections in a network in which the players are organizations, not people.

Network of organizations: all interactions between organizations in a population.

Organization set: the sum of interorganizational linkages established by an organization.

Resisters: factors that constrain or impede coordination.

Service linkages: coordination outreach, or referral of clientele.

Resources Needed for Unit V

Markers; newsprint pad; index cards

Screen; slide projector; easel

Slides 68 and 69 (Instructional Aids)

TIP Sheet 23 (Learners' Packet)

Worksheet 20 (Learners' Packet)

Case Studies 2 and 3 (Learners' Packet)

Self-Assessment: Facilitating Interorganizational Relations (Learners' Packet)

Sourcebook, Unit V

Introduction

Self-Assessment: Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Ask learners to complete Part A of the instrument.

Slide 68

Unit V: Building Interorganizational Relations

Discuss the title of Unit V.

Slide 69

Objective: To build skills in interorganizational relations

Discuss the objective of Unit V.

Interorganizational Network

TIP Sheet 23: Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Worksheet 20: Facilitating from the Outside/In

Introduction: "Perhaps the most basic distinction when facilitating interorganizational relations is whether we are facilitating from the inside (as a member of the network), or from the outside. Please read the first page of TIP Sheet 23 and then complete the first page of Worksheet 20."

Ask the small groups of learners to share their answers among each other. Then, seek feedback from each group. Record key points on newsprint.

Next, ask learners to complete the second page of Worksheet 20 and refer to the remainder of TIP Sheet 23, as necessary. Ask each group to summarize what they learned, and to share the summary wtih the entire group. Record key points on newsprint.

Exercise: Getting Credit

Exercise: Getting Credit (the costs versus the rewards of facilitating). *Introduction:* "While our clientele undoubtedly benefit when we successfully facilitate interorganizational relations, and as staff members we reap psychic returns, such facilitation is fraught with problems in

terms of real rewards for both the Extension System and the individual staff member. Neither invisible people nor invisible programs are rewarded."

Questions on Newsprint:
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Ask small groups of learners to discuss the following questions [on newsprint]:

1. How do group members personally deal with the credit issue?

2. How does your state Extension service deal with the issue?

3. How does the credit issue differ for staff members in different positions (program areas or disciplines, geographic area)?

Allow for group feedback and record responses on newsprint.

Creating Coordination

Case Study 2:
Coordinating for Cooperation

Case Study 3:
Coordinating City Services

Use one or both case studies, depending on learners' interests. In Case Study 2 (inside), Extension is an equal partner. In Case Study 3 (outside), Extension is a facilitator.

Self-Assessment: Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Ask learners to complete Parts B and C of the instrument.

The Great Debate

Purpose

Final workshop evaluation activity to elicit positive as well as negative comments.

Preparation

One index card for each participant marked with a plus (+) or a minus (-). These cards may be color coded to break learners into smaller groups. [Example: five colors, one for each unit in the module].

Procedure

Distribute one card to each person, thus dividing participants into two groups of equal size. One will argue for the negative and the other for the positive. These two groups can be subdivided into as many smaller groups as needed to give all learners a chance to participate.

Explain procedure. "You are going to evaluate the workshop by means of debate. Participants with a (-) on their index card are to stand on the left side of the room and participants with a (+) on their card, on the right. The 'pluses' will present the positive aspects of each dimension introduced. The 'minuses' will present the negative aspects of each dimension."

Assign topics. Possibilities include a unit-by-unit review on dimensions, such as utility, content, process, and so forth. Rotate topics between respective subgroups. For example, green "minuses" debating green "pluses," or red "minuses" debating red "pluses."

Allow 10 minutes for preparation. This may include writing the pros (if " + " on card) and cons (if "–" on card) on the cards individually, and then taking to respective groups to use in preparing for the debate. Ask each group to choose a spokesperson.

Call for the debate. Learners may choose to remain standing or be seated. Ask for the negative side of a dimension first; the positive, second. Each spokesperson makes a one-minute presentation. End the debate with the safest or most enjoyable dimension.

Hand cards in to the leader.

Annotated Films and Videotapes

Films

The Abilene Paradox

This amusing film focuses on over-cooperation. The film focuses on examples from a family, a young couple, a faculty, and industry.

Creative Problem Solving: How to Get Better Ideas

Film presents the steps to creative problem solving and the basics of creativity. Touches upon right brain and left brain distinctions and several idea-generating techniques.

Groupthink

This classic film, based on a book by Irving Janis, shows how the tendency to agree interferes with critical thinking. A board is shown making a poor decision, and then replayed showing examples of groupthink in action. Also focuses on the role of groupthink in "historical fiascos."

12 Angry Men

Classic 1950s film with many familiar faces. Focuses on a jury deliberating the fate of a suspect on trial for murder. Available at most videotape outlets.

Videotapes

In Search of Excellence

This 90-minute videotape is based on Peters and Waterman's best seller by the same name. Vignettes on companies including Disneyworld, McDonald's, IBM, and Apple Computer. The segment on 3M is recommended for use in this Module.

The Tale of "O"

Based on the book by Kanter and Stein (1980) that deals with being different in an organization [listed under Unit III in Selected Annotated Bibliography]. Very effective. Available on slides or videotape.

Working With Our Publics

Module 5: Working With Groups and Organizations

Learners' Packet

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North Carolina State University, Raleigh

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Leader-Learner Contract

Working With Our Publics: In-Service Education
for Cooperative Extension
Module 5: Working With Groups and Organizations

1. The leader's job.

a. To present a set of alternatives.
b. To provide a safe opportunity to test these alternatives.

2. Everybody has a right to support his or her own views and values.

Your disagreement is as valuable as your agreement.

3. Leader and learners share responsibility for the outcome of this program.

a. *Leader:* to be competent and to be responsive to your *stated* needs.
b. *Learners:* a positive attitude toward this experience and for what you learn.

4. The "bugging rule."

a. If anything is said that puzzles or offends you, speak up *when* it happens.
b. The leader will do the same for you.

5. The bored rule.

If you really are bored, stand up and say, "I'm bored." The leader will ask, "Who else?" If 20 percent or more of the total group responds, he or she will take 5 minutes to finish that topic. If less than 20 percent responds, you will wait at least 10 minutes before trying again.

6. The design of this program is flexible.

The leader is there to be a resource for you. Stay in touch with your needs and speak up if they are not being met.

7. Somber versus serious.

Do not confuse the leader's lack of somberness with not taking this program seriously. The leader just may not take himself or herself too seriously.

8. Take care of physical needs as they occur.

We will break formally when it suits our work.

9. This contract is always negotiable.

_____

Signature

Adapted from Karp (1985)

Unit I. Networking

Overview

Networking is a purposeful process of acquiring resources by linking together two or more persons, groups, or organizations. Networking is an essential skill for the Extension professional. Unit I provides an experiential introduction to networking concepts and strategies, and an opportunity to apply networking principles.

Objective

—To build networking knowledge and skills.

Glossary

Boundary spanner: a player who connects two networks by transmitting information, technology, or other resources.

Central: network member with the most connections to all others.

Direct contact: firsthand source of information.

Dyad: a two-unit subsystem within a network.

Exchange: a resource transaction among two or more network members.

Formal network: a network characterized by primarily vertical flows of resources.

Indirect contact: secondhand source of information.

Informal network: a network characterized by primarily horizontal flows of resources.

Information: resource based in knowledge or data.

Interpersonal power: springs from connections with others.

Isolate: network member connected by few ties.

Legitimacy: an intangible resource (also known as support) that shows conformity with recognized principles or accepted standards.

Linkage: path between network members and conduit for resource exchange.

Network: a system of exchange among three or more social entities (persons, groups, organizations, or others).

Networking: a purposeful process of acquiring resources or building power by linking together two or more persons, groups, or organizations.

Norm of reciprocity: informal rule of fair play.

Opinion leader: network member with ties to many other networks, but not usually a central in own network.

Personal power: springs from the ability to act or from personal qualities that others value.

Positional power: springs from the ability to control another person via power vested in a position; also called authority.

Power: ability to act, produce, or command resources.

Resource: the "stuff" exchanged during networking, of value in itself or for what it can accomplish.

Rules of the game: laws, regulations, mores, norms, customs, or values.

Similarity network: a type of network in which interactions are based on likenesses.

Strategy: plan for action.

Strong ties: repetitive social relationships with high emotional intensity.

Transaction network: a type of network in which interactions are based on differences or complementarity.

Weak ties: Infrequent social contact that allows one to tap into new resources.

Self-Assessment: Networking

Complete Part A before the session and Parts B and C following the session.

	Level of skill knowledge							
	Part A: Before unit				**Part B:** After unit			
KNOWLEDGE:	None	Little	Some	Much	None	Little	Some	Much
1. Difference between similarity and transaction networks	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2. Difference between formal and informal networks	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
3. Relation between information and power	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
4. The meaning of the "strength of weak ties"	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
5. Difference between positional and personal power	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
SKILL:								
6. How to improve networking	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7. How to chart a network	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8. How to network for group members	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9. How to make the most of indirect contacts	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10. How to network during conferences.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

Part C: What will you do differently in your Extension role as a result of this session?

Worksheet 1
Charting Your Constellation

Know Yourself

Networking is a purposeful process. Unfocused networking depletes energy with little return. Effective networkers know their goals and understand their personal strengths and weaknesses and they also know their organizations strengths and weaknesses. They always ask, "Networking for what?" Think of some purpose you have in your organization that could be met through networking.

Inventory Resources

What resources do you need to accomplish your purpose? The ones you do not have must be obtained. Some resources may be yours for the asking, others may involve an exchange. Since, in the long run, networking follows the "norm of reciprocity" (give-and-take), consider what you have to offer in exchange.

Some types of resources are listed below. You may add others. On the left, check the resources that you can provide or exchange. On the right, indicate what you need and possible sources. Sources may be people or nonpersonal sources, such as directories or mailing lists. Consider unfamiliar sources or people with whom you do not usually interact. Record the names and the addresses or phone numbers of personal sources.

I Have:	Kind of Resources	I Need:	Possible Sources
	Information		
	Materials		
	Interested people		
	Support or legitimation		
	Sounding board		
	Funding		
	Ideas		
	Other		

Networking for Information

Since workshops and conferences are custom-made for networking for information, we will illustrate the basic principles of charting your constellation with an activity on networking for information. However, the same basic procedure can be used to network for any resource. First, read TIP Sheet 3, "Networking Checklist." Decide what information you need, and then do some purposeful networking in this room, charting your constellation as you proceed.

1. Approach:

"Hi, my name is _____ ;

I need information about _____ ."

continued

2. Possible responses:

Direct help: "I can help you."

Direct and indirect help: "I can help you *and* I know someone else who can."

Indirect help: "I can't help you but I know someone who can."

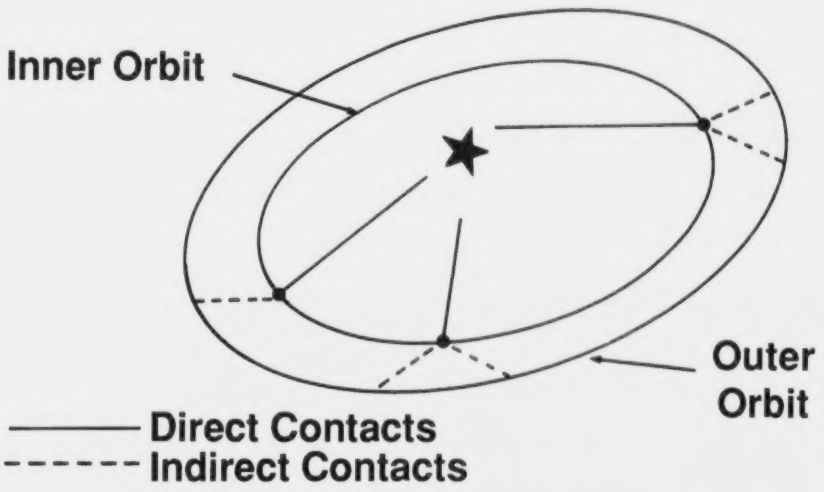
Dead end: "Sorry, I can't help you."

3. Chart constellation:

Follow the advice that mathematicians give their students and draw a picture to represent the problem. You may want to use the chart at the bottom of the page.

The "star" of your network is the focus of all transactions. Always "anchor" on the star. In this case, you will "work the network" from the inside-out. [The star also can be another person, perhaps a volunteer you want to recruit. In that case, you will "work the network" from the outside-in. See TIP Sheet 2, "Networking for Group Members."]

The inner orbit consists of *direct contacts,* people with whom you have immediate, face-to-face or telephone, contacts. Direct contacts provide links to other people (or nonpersonal sources, such as directories, books, among others) called *indirect contacts.* Indirect contacts are indicated in the drawing as the *outer orbit.*



TIP Sheet 1
Conferencing

Conferences and workshops are custom-made for networking and for taking advantage of "the strength of weak ties." To build networks while conferencing, remember to:

1. *Be visible.* Participate; ask questions; comment, but don't overdo it.
2. *Take the initiative.* Introduce yourself to others. Seek out the workshop leaders or other participants during breaks to ask questions or to explore further ideas.
3. *Talk to people you do not know well or at all.* Look for people who look like they need someone to talk to. Need to break the ice? Say hello. Give a compliment. Ask a question. Share a common experience. Ask for an opinion. If all else fails, you can always talk about the weather!
4. *Take notes.* You may lose valuable information unless you record it.
5. Make a mental effort to remember names.

- *Look.* What color are the person's eyes? If you can answer this question, you probably are really focusing on the other person. Do not worry about the impression you are making.
- *Listen.* Focus on the name, its sound. Repeat it verbally, and mentally.
- *Look again.* Search for a unique or predominant feature on the person's head or face.
- *Attach.* Mentally associate something visual to the unique feature of hair or face. For example, you have just met Jim Reynolds. Visualize a gym shoe in his curly hair and aluminum foil in his bushy eyebrows. The more bizarre, the stronger the neural connection!
- *Reinforce.* At your first opportunity later that day, record the name and draw the face (complete with aluminum foil and gym shoes). Record other features remembered, such as age, comments about family, or hobby.

TIP Sheet 2
Networking for Group Members

Networking skills can be used to find members for new or existing groups. What resources will members provide besides their presence? People can provide legitimacy, special expertise, connections, time, inspiration, or more tangible resources such as money, buildings, or equipment.

Chart Constellation

Sketch a network around the potential recruit to reveal points of access. Find the "right" person to do the asking—a personal acquaintance, relative, friend of a relative, or someone with good interpersonal skills. Work together to find a "hook." Will the potential recruit be willing to give the time or energy to be with people, achieve a purpose, or gain or exercise power? Remember, most people keep their "radios" tuned to station WIFM ("What's in It for Me?").

Ask

A one-on-one, face-to-face approach is usually best, but even if you must telephone, a preliminary letter is courteous and effective. Phrase your invitation carefully. Avoid the "hard-sell"—"shoulds," appeals to civic responsibility, and arm-twisting. You want people who freely join your group.

1. Give your name, organizational affiliation, reason for calling, and the source who suggested you contact this person.

2. Tell a little about the group—its name, its purpose, other members. Do not overload with information, but mention the likely intensity and duration of involvement.

3. Tell why his or her service would be of value to the group—"We want you to serve because . . ."—and how the volunteer would benefit from serving.

Listen

If the person says yes, answer any questions and arrange for follow up. If the person says no, try to continue the conversation in order to gain information to support your next round of networking: "Are there other ways you can make a contribution?"; "Could you help us at some other time?"; or "Can you suggest other people who might want to work with us?" If the person answers maybe, provide any additional information needed to make a choice, such as duration and intensity of involvement.

Say **"THANKS!"**

Thank the person for his or her time—whatever the response.

TIP Sheet 3
Networking Checklist

1. Do you take advantage of opportunities to meet people, learn names, ask questions, and do favors? Remember that connections established today can pay off in the future.

2. Do you assume that most people want to be helpful? A positive attitude is indispensable.

3. Do you make the best use of your direct contacts by asking not only "Can you help me?" but also "Who do you know who might help me?"

4. Do you pursue these indirect sources? You are more likely to follow up on indirect sources if you do so immediately.

5. When you do make contact, do you generally validate your source (tell people who gave you their name)? This increases your credibility and the likelihood of a positive response.

6. Do you always take "no" for an answer? Instead, try to get to "yes," by asking for more limited assistance, such as ideas as to whom else you might contact.

7. If someone tells you that "a door is closed," do you try it anyway? The door may be closed to certain ideas or resources and not to others, or closed only temporarily.

8. Do you have difficulty contacting "important" people? There is some truth to the saying, "Nothing ventured, nothing gained."

9. Do you assume that if someone did not help you once that he or she will not help you again? In fact, people are more likely to agree to your second request after turning down the first.

10. Do you always thank the person who helped you and offer to return the favor? In the long run, networking operates by the "norm of reciprocity" (fair trade).

11. Do you keep a record of contacts, including date of contact, name, address, telephone number, and miscellaneous information (such as what other resources the person might have, or if he or she might be available at a later date)? A few minutes invested in record keeping will be repaid with interest in the future.

12. Do you ask for a small favor first? The "foot-in-the-door" technique suggests that people are more likely to make a large commitment to help, if they have previously made a small commitment.

Case Study 1: Tomato IPM Monitoring Program

During the summer of 1986, a team of Extension specialists at the University of California—Davis used network analysis to determine why some farmers were not participating in Integrated Pest Management (IPM). A population of 100 tomato growers in Yolo County was identified and interviews were conducted with 84 growers. Demographic information was obtained, in addition to measures of adoption or adaptation of innovations, sources of technical information, and communication networks (who talks to whom regarding pests). Analysis of these data revealed, among other things, a "clique" of 25 to 30 Japanese farmers who relied primarily on friendship and kinship networks for information, a number of "isolates" who were not linked to anyone in the network, and a number of farmers with ties to most subgroups but not firmly entrenched in any ("opinion leaders").

1. If you were the agriculture adviser (County Extension Agent) in Yolo County, what changes might the results of the network analysis suggest for your program design?

2. What strategy or strategies could be used to reach isolates (those not connected to the communication network)?

3. What strategies could be used to take advantage of the connections of the opinion leaders?

4. Frequent contact may or may not indicate real opinion leadership. How would you verify opinion-leader status?

Unit II. Communicating One-to-One

Overview

Extension's network draws its vitality from strong interpersonal connections established by each Extension worker. Effective communication is the surest way to maintain strong connections. Unproductive relationships can be strengthened or abandoned.

Objective

—To build interpersonal power through effective communication.

Glossary

Aggressive behavior: physically or verbally attacking another.

Assertiveness: standing up for oneself through communication that is direct, honest, and spontaneous.

Closed questions: questions that deter discussion because they can be answered in just a few words.

Door closers: words or actions that close communication channels.

Door openers: words or actions that open communications channels.

Empathy: the ability to put oneself in the place of another.

"I"-message: a direct, immediate, and honest statement of needs and limits.

Initiation: an assertive statement of one's needs or wants.

Interactive style: characteristic pattern of communication based on one's relative degree of sensitivity and assertiveness.

Minimal encouragers: short utterances or nonverbal gestures that urge the speaker to continue talking by providing reassurance that the message is being heard.

Open questions: questions that cannot be answered easily with a "yes," "no," or other short, specific answer.

Passive behavior: silence or a light dismissal, even when another's behavior is offensive or inconvenient.

Positive confrontation: a strategy for dealing with another person's behavior with which you are uncomfortable.

Reflection: a response that demonstrates acceptance and understanding of a message by capturing the speaker's feelings as well as the content of the message.

Sensitivity: extent to which actions are based on caring about people and their feelings.

Setting limits: an assertive statement by which one says "no" to the requests or demands of others.

Strength: the intensity of the message (feelings or importance).

Suspending judgment: refraining from forming judgments or evaluations.

"You"-message: a nonassertive, often aggressive statement about another's behavior that involves blame, moralizing, and put-down.

Self-Assessment: Communicating One-to-One

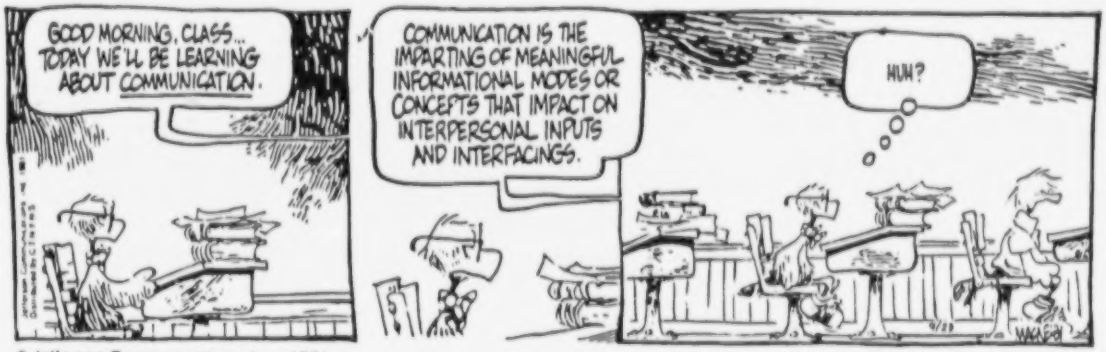
Complete Part A before the session and Parts B and C following the session.

	Level of skill knowledge							
	Part A: Before unit				**Part B:** After unit			
KNOWLEDGE:	None	Little	Some	Much	None	Little	Some	Much
1. Difference among passive, assertive, and aggressive communication.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2. Reasons for setting limits	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
3. Communication door closers to avoid	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
4. Difference between open and closed questions	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
5. Attributes of sensitivity	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
SKILL:								
6. How to send an "I"-message	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7. How to give constructive criticism	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8. How to handle criticism	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9. How to send an assertive message at an appropriate level	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10. How to adjust to another's communication style	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

Part C: What will you do differently in your Extension role as a result of this session?

Worksheet 2
Communicating One-to-One

"SHOE" Cartoon (reprinted with permission)


GOOD MORNING, CLASS... TODAY WE'LL BE LEARNING ABOUT COMMUNICATION.
COMMUNICATION IS THE IMPARTING OF MEANINGFUL INFORMATIONAL MODES OR CONCEPTS THAT IMPACT ON INTERPERSONAL INPUTS AND INTERFACINGS.
HUH?

© Jefferson Communications, Inc., 1981

Effective Communication = Sensitivity + Assertiveness

Your feelings toward the words "sensitive" and "assertive."

Your partner's feelings toward the words "sensitive" and "assertive."

Tip Sheet 4: Increasing Sensitivity

People can increase their sensitivity, with some effort to become "other-centered." Three strategies are summarized here.

Active Listening

Active listening is a systematic way to increase sensitivity. In addition to the three specific techniques listed here, try increasing your use of gestures, becoming more aware of the impact of your facial expression, tuning into feelings, and letting your emotions show.

Minimal encouragers urge the speaker to continue, and show that you are really listening. They include nonverbal signs, such as eye contact and leaning forward attentively. They include short utterances, such as

. . . "eh?" or "and?"

. . . a repetition of the speaker's last word or two, such as:

Speaker: "I don't know where to start. I'm so frustrated!"

Listener: "Frustrated?"

. . . or a restatement of the speaker's last statement with a slight upward inflection, as in a question:

Speaker: "This Extension bulletin deadline is hanging over my head. I just hope I can make it."

Listener: "You're worried about making the deadline?"

Open questions encourage people to explore their feelings. They often begin with words such as "how," "what," "could," or "would." Closed questions usually begin with "is," "are," "do," or "did." Closed questions usually are a deterrent to discussion because they can be answered by "yes" or "no" or in just a few words. Be aware that "why" can make the speaker feel defensive, as if needing to justify his or her behavior.

Reflection means to give back an image of the meaning of a message. A reflective response demonstrates acceptance and understanding of the message by capturing the speaker's feelings as well as the content of the message.

Stop, Look, Listen

Follow the instructions we give young children who are learning to cross the street. Stop talking and pay attention. Look at the speaker. And listen! Attend to:

What Others Say. But be aware that words may convey as little as 10 percent of the meaning of a message.

How They Say It. About 40 percent of a message's meaning is conveyed by characteristics of voice—rate, pitch, tone, volume.

Note congruence between what they say and how they say it. We have all heard the saying, "It's not what you said, it's how you said it." When we hear discrepancies between a person's verbal message (words) and tone, we may be more influenced by tone.

What They Look Like When They Say It. About one-half of what people communicate is nonverbal. Be alert to nonverbal clues, such as averting eyes, fidgeting, and so forth.

Note congruence between what you hear and what you see. We have also heard the expression, "Actions speak louder then words." Nonverbals may be given more credence than the verbal message.

Suspending Judgment

Our natural tendency to judge—to approve or disapprove of the statements or actions of others—is a major barrier to interpersonal communication. Although such evaluations are natural and essential, the ability to suspend judgment, at least temporarily, is equally valuable. Reaching judgments prematurely restricts our opportunities to teach and to learn from others.

Judgment may be heightened when our feelings and emotions are involved, or when we possess special knowledge or expertise. One irony of human relationships is that we tend to be more judgmental (imposing our values, being less tolerant) of those whom we most like (our significant others, or children, or parents).

Criticism, labeling, and diagnosing are types of judging. When we *criticize,* we are passing judgment on the merit of some person, idea, action, or thing. *Labeling* is stereotyping, or attaching a name, to another person. When we *diagnose,* we attribute the actions of others to hidden motives, psychological complexes, and so forth. Note its negative effects when we suggest to another that he or she is being defensive, self-deceiving, or acting out guilt or fear.

We all may have instances in our lives when suspending judgment will be difficult because of socialization on racial or gender equality, sexuality, religious or nonreligious preferences, or the "right way" of doing something. Some of the following suggestions may help you in your efforts to suspend judgment.

1. **Relax.** Try to understand what you are experiencing.
2. **Listen** to hear complete thoughts. Think of listening as information gathering. Use techniques of active listening to clarify the message without challenging the speaker.
3. **Accept** things that you cannot realistically change. Remember, acceptance does not mean agreement.
4. **Learn.** You might be surprised; your feelings or opinions might change!
5. **Assess.** Judge as little as you must.

Worksheet 3
Open Questions

Open questions cannot be answered easily with a "yes," "no," or other short, specific answer.

Open questions encourage people to explore their feelings. They often begin with words such as "how" or "what." Closed questions usually begin with "is," "are," "do," or "did." Which of the following questions is most helpful to you, and why?

"Do you like your supervisor?"

"Could you tell me a little about your relationship with your supervisor?"

SCENARIO

You: "How are you feeling about your role in Extension?"

Joy: "I feel really good right now. All of my recent programs have been successes. My supervisor has been so pleased that she wants me to concentrate on developing the Nutrition Program and recruiting more volunteers. I just don't know how I'll have time to do it all and keep up with my existing programs. I just got married and I want to have some time with my husband. I'm willing to maintain the quality, which everyone agrees is good, but I can't handle much more right now. Still, I don't want to let anyone down and have the responsibility taken away from me either. I have to start setting some priorities and make a decision."

How might you respond?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Practice changing closed questions to open questions by revising the wording.

Worksheet 4
Reflection

To reflect a message means to give back an image of the factual content and emotional meaning of the message.

SCENARIO 1

Sue: "The people I work for seem to think that they are the only ones to whom I am responsible. They always give me work late in the afternoon—just before I'm ready to leave. Or else they demand that I type and make 200 copies of some report and have it done yesterday! When I try to explain that I have six other agents' work to do too, and ask them to give me work in advance so that I can finish it on time, they act as if I'm the one who is unreasonable."

Tom: "They act as if you are unreasonable."

Dick: " Your supervisors don't have much consideration for your workload scheduling problems, and you are frustrated by the situation."

Mary: "Each of the agents you work for thinks that she is the only one you're responsible to. They all give you work late and want it done right away. When you try to explain that you have other people to work for, or ask for advance notice, they act as if you're the one who is unreasonable."

Whose response to Sue is reflection?_____

Why?_____

_____

_____

SCENARIO 2

Dan: "I'm feeling a little frustrated right now. I want to be a 4-H volunteer, but I'm afraid it's taking more time than I expected. I'm trying to finish my degree, and that's important to me, but I am very interested in 4-H and don't want to back out on my commitment. All of this work is making me edgy and a little panicked. And I'm afraid if I don't give something up, or at least cut down in some way, I won't do a good job either."

How would you respond to Dan, a 4-H volunteer, using reflection?

You:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Worksheet 5
Stop, Look, Listen

What Others Say

Words may convey as little as 10 percent of the meaning of a message. Write down some of the key words from Murray's conversation with Wilma.

How They Say It

About 40 percent of a message's meaning is conveyed by characteristics of voice. What were some characteristics of Murray's voice?

What They Look Like When They Say It

About one-half of what people communicate is nonverbal. What nonverbal clues did you receive from Murray?

Congruence: What They Say versus How They Say It

"It's not what you said, it's how you said it."
Did you notice any discrepancies between Murray's verbal message (words) and tone of voice?

Congruence: What You Hear versus What You See

"Actions speak louder than words."
Did you notice any discrepancies between Murray's verbal message (words), and nonverbal message (appearance)?

TIP Sheet 5
Communicating Assertively

Assertiveness means standing up for oneself through communication that is direct, honest, and spontaneous.

Although often confused, assertion is not aggression. Aggressive behavior may include threatening gestures, invading another's space, or physical or verbal attacks (labeling, moralizing, giving "you"-messages, shouting). Aggression is counterproductive, rarely accomplishing what it is that you want. Instead, it may cause the other person to withdraw or retaliate.

Passive behavior also is ineffective. Responding to behavior that is personally offensive or inconveniencing with silence, acquiescence, or dismissing the behavior as unimportant is passive behavior. Negative consequences include internalized anger, intensified conflict, or the involvement of an "innocent third party" in the dispute (either as the recipient of pent-up anger, or as a mediator).

The two sides of the assertiveness coin are *initiating* (getting what you want), and *limit setting* (not getting what you don't want).

Initiating (or, Getting What You Want)

Speak for Yourself

"I"-messages are the cornerstone of assertive communication because they allow us to speak for ourselves, directly and honestly. Wording is crucial. If possible, construct your statement beforehand and rehearse it with a trusted friend. These messages have three major parts:

Feelings: Direct and honest expression of the emotional impact of the unacceptable behavior on you.

Behavior: Brief, nonjudgmental, precise description of the specific behavior you find unacceptable.

Effect: Short, concrete, logical statement of the consequences of the behavior on you.

"I feel _____ when you _____ because _____.

Example: "I'm confused and frustrated. I feel you are pushing our meetings along too fast and not allowing enough time for discussion. As a result, I don't feel very committed."

Avoid "you"-statements disguised as "I"-statements, such as "I think you should . . ." or "I know how you feel" or "I wish you would . . ."

Be Congruent

Reinforce your verbal message with appropriate nonverbal behavior—eye contact and leaning forward. Avoid "mixed messages"—for example, smiling when you are feeling angry.

Use Appropriate Strength

Many negative reactions to assertiveness are the result of a supposedly assertive message being delivered with inappropriate strength (or intensity), and misinterpreted (perhaps rightly so), as aggression. Learn to vary the strength of an assertion to an appropriate level. Try thinking of four levels:

Level 1. Politely state your request.
Level 2. Restate at increased intensity.
Level 3. State consequences of continuing behavior (If . . . . then).
Level 4. Carry out consequences.

Remember, a little assertiveness goes a long way. As a rule, strive first to achieve the minimum level of strength and, then, escalate as needed.

Setting Limits (or, Not Getting What You Don't Want)

"No" is one of the shortest words in the English language, but one of the hardest to say. There are many reasons for saying "no." Perhaps you are suffering from information or opportunity overload. Or perhaps you are engaged in a nonreciprocal relationship. By stating your limits, either fair trade will be resumed or you can abandon the relationship. Either way, you win. Only by sometimes saying "no" are you able to say "yes" to the things you want. As the demands of others increase, this ability becomes even more important.

Strategies

1. Set personal goals and priorities. Make every "no" mean a "yes" to your goals.
2. Avoid excessive excuses or reasons. Why give the skillful requester leverage to change your mind? For every reason, there is an opposing reason. A failed excuse gives no second chance. Excuses can be interpeted as a "put-down" of self or others. Excuses may be a way to avoid honest feelings or minimize anxiety. You have the perfect right to say "no"—period.
3. Try to say "no" immediately.
4. Make a referral. Your "no" can become another person's "yes." Redefine "passing the buck" as empowerment.
5. Use variable strength. You have a continuum of choice ranging from "No, but . . . " to "No" (period). "No, but . . ." includes offers to help at a later time, in a more limited way, or a referral to another source.

Be judicious in saying "no." Consider the costs for saying "no" to your boss or to "the system." Your best defense is having your own priorities in order.

—Adapted from Butler (1981)

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Worksheet 6
Bad Scenes

Scene 1

Jack and you have agreed to serve as co-chairs for program planning for a major program. You feel that Jack is not carrying his load and, worse, seems completely unaware that he is taking advantage of you. Give examples of responses that would be:

Passive: _____

_____

Assertive: _____

_____

Aggressive: _____

_____

Scene 2

Susan is repeatedly late for staff meetings. You are concerned about the time spent nonproductively, and find it increasingly difficult to tolerate her "grand entrance," at which she shares at length all of the misfortunes she has suffered since daybreak. Give examples of responses that would be:

Passive: _____

_____

Assertive: _____

_____

Aggressive: _____

_____

Scene 3

You are a member of the board for a voluntary nonprofit organization that serves low-income people in your community. Even though you are serving as a citizen, not an Extension representative, Joe frequently makes denigrating remarks about Extension being "part of the problem," serving only the middle-income people, and so forth. He also frequently responds sarcastically to issues by suggesting, "Let's ask the expert" (referring to you). How could you respond to Joe's behavior?

Passive: _____

_____

Assertive: _____

_____

Aggressive: _____

_____

Worksheet 7
Strength of Message

You can increase the power of an assertive message by varying its strength (intensity). Complete this Worksheet by drawing upon any of the examples presented previously, or one of your own choosing. First, distinguish among passive, assertive, and aggressive responses to a situation. Next,practice varying the strength of the assertive response.

PASSIVE		
ASSERTIVE	Level 1. Strength	Politely state your request:
	Level 2. Strength	Restate at increased intensity:
	Level 3. Strength	State consequences of continuing behavior:
	Level 4. Strength	Carry out consequences:
AGGRESSIVE		

Worksheet 8
Saying No

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each of the following situations and respond to each with either a "No (period)" or a "No, but . . .".

Situation 1. A state association that you hold in high regard has asked you to be on their board of directors. This will require bimonthly, daylong meetings, as well as considerable travel and work. You are already overcommitted, and are having difficulty meeting your currrent obligations. Yet, you can see many benefits accruing to Extension and your career if you should accept.

Situation 2. Your boss wants you to work on a special project from 1 to 3 p.m. next Thursday. You *always* protect this time to keep your office organized. You believe that if you start breaking this commitment, even once, your life may become confused and disorganized once again.

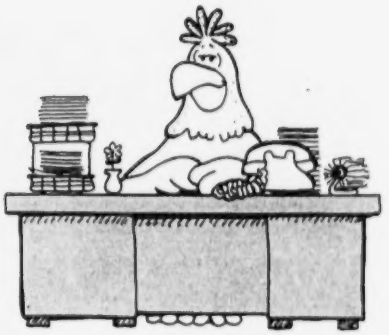
Situation 3. You promised a family member a night out once a month. A very powerful group in your community has asked you to present a seminar on your favorite topic. It coincides with your first "night out."

Situation 4. A colleague has just discovered two program commitments for the same evening, and has come to you for help. This colleague would probably help you, if you were in the same predicament. You have no activities scheduled for that evening, but you are tired (after a long string of evening commitments), and were looking forward to a relaxing evening at home.

Situation 5. A friend who seems to have more problems than the typical person has come into your office, needing to talk, once again. You have several callbacks that need to be made as soon as possible.

Summary Sheet 1. Stoic (Less assertive and less sensitive)

Less assertive behaviors:



Talks and gestures infrequently.
Tends to ask questions rather than give directions.
Speaks softly, but carefully, in a well-planned manner.
Expresses ideas more tentatively, and often will qualify ideas.
Tends to be less forceful (lean backward) when talking.
Avoids risks; stresses quality.
Emphasizes "do it right the first time" philosophy.
Makes decisions more slowly.
Exerts little pressure for decisions.

Less responsive behaviors:

Shows little body movement, and more rigid gestures.
Has facial expressions and voice that "tell" little.
Task oriented.
Fact oriented.
Disciplined about time.
Serious; detached from feelings.
Avoids small talk and storytelling.
May prefer to work alone.

Other clues:

Conventional, tasteful, organized, and formal office.
Conservative and proper dress.
Prefers to be planned, decided, and orderly.
Bases judgments more on logic than on personal values.
Gives more attention to ideas and things than to human relationships.

Positive group qualities:

Is logical, thorough, serious, systematic, prudent.

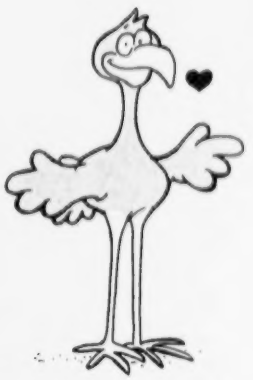
Negative group qualities:

May be nitpicky and inflexible.
May neglect and hurt others' feelings without knowing it.

Summary Sheet 2. Amiable (Less assertive, more sensitive behavior)

Less assertive behaviors:

AMIABLE



Talks and gestures infrequently.
Walks and gestures more slowly.
Leans back when talking.
Encourages others to express opinions.
Tends to be quiet in meetings; may express ideas after others have spoken.
Presents ideas that synthesize previous ideas.
Expresses proposals tentatively.
Decides more slowly, with less pressure.

More sensitive behaviors:

Decides things based on personal feelings and human values.
People and work group-oriented.
Predicts feelings and shows concern with how people will respond to change.
Prefers one-to-one interaction; may avoid being alone or in large groups.
Upset by arguments and conflict; values harmony.
Strives to please people and gain praise.
Has friendly facial expressions; relaxed posture.
Is flexible with time.

Other clues:

Has "homey" office.
Dresses informally, but tastefully.
Does mental work by talking and working with people.

Positive group qualities:

Is supportive, loyal, cooperative, diplomatic, patient.

Negative group qualities:

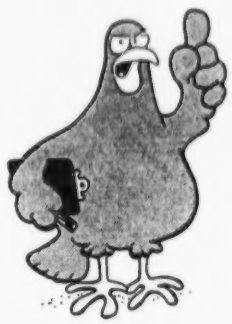
May be too conforming and permissive.
Reluctance to express important facts or feelings may inhibit action.

Summary Sheet 3. Driver (More assertive and less sensitive)

More assertive behaviors:

Moves quickly.
Directs energy toward task.
Leans forward to make a point.
Tells others what to do; is "should"-oriented.
Speaks rapidly, intensely, forcefully, loudly.
Uses eye contact to make a point.
Has strong opinions, and wants to be right.
Speaks directly "to the point."
Willing to take risks.
Decides quickly.
Exerts pressure to decide.

DRIVER



Less sensitive behaviors:

Shows few facial expressions.
Exhibits controlled body movements.
Uses few gestures.
Fact, task, and result-oriented.
Is pragmatic.
Plans often, with things settled and decided ahead.
Uses time effectively.
Engages in little small talk.
Prefers to work alone, or direct others.
Interacts with others briefly and abruptly.
Needs to prove himself or herself.

Other clues:

Functional and sparsely decorated office.
Conservative, neat, and functional dress.
Finishes one project before starting another.

Positive group qualities:

Independent, candid, decisive, pragmatic, efficient.

Negative group qualities:

Can be intimidating or overwhelming.
Occasionally arrogant, domineering, and unfeeling.

Summary Sheet 4. Expressive (More assertive and sensitive)

EXPRESSIVE

More assertive behaviors:

Displays fast-paced motions and gestures.
Exudes high energy.
Tends to speak more loudly than others.
Speaks rapidly and with much expression.
Expresses opinions strongly.
Takes risks.
Decides quickly.
Exerts pressure to decide.

More sensitive behaviors:

Shows free-flowing gestures.
Uses eye contact and facial expressions.
Uses voice to express opinion.
Uses language dramatically.
Is fun-loving, playful; likes action and variety.
Tells anecdotes and stories; initiates small talk.
Is flexible and avoids fixed plans.
Is people oriented.
Opinionated.
Intuitive.

Other clues:

Open, colorful, bold, and possibly disorganized office.
Original and flamboyant dress.
Spends leisure time with other people.
Uses imagination and often finds new solutions to problems.

Positive group qualities:

Is outgoing, enthusiastic, persuasive, fun-loving, spontaneous.

Negative group qualities:

May be overbearing and domineering.
Impatient with details.
Starts many projects, but has trouble completing them.
May neglect routine assignments.

Worksheet 9
Interactive Styles

Stoics	Drivers
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
Amiables	**Expressives**
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Place the name of each of the following persons in the appropriate box.

1. Jessie Jackson
2. Mary Tyler Moore
3. Mr. Spock
4. Captain Kirk
5. Liza Minnelli
6. Jimmy Swaggart
7. Jean Kirkpatrick
8. Ronald Reagan
9. "Hawkeye" on MASH
10. Sherlock Holmes
11. Margaret Thatcher
12. Barbara Walters
13. Patricia Schroeder
14. "Significant other"
15. Opra Winfrey
16. Your best friend
17. Your "most difficult person"
18. Your immediate supervisor
19. Yourself

Predictions:
Someone you know: _____

Your own style: _____

—Adapted from Bolton and Bolton (1984) and Merrill and Reid (1981)

Worksheet 10
Interactive Styles Indicator

Instructions: Circle the number of the statement in each of the following pairs that best applies to the behavior of someone you know. For each item, your point of reference is one-half of the population—how the person you are analyzing compares to the hypothetical average.

Assertiveness

1. Moves slowly and deliberately.
2. Moves rapidly.

1. Speaks slowly and softly.
2. Speaks quickly, intensely, and often loudly.

1. Leans backward, even when making a request or stating an opinion.
2. Sits upright or leans forward, especially when making a request or stating an opinion.

1. Is tentative in expressing opinions, making requests, and giving directions.
2. Is emphatic when expressing opinions, making requests, and giving directions.

1. Is rarely confrontive.
2. Is sometimes confrontive.

1. Lets others take the interpersonal initiative.
2. Takes the interpersonal initiative.

1. Is "ask oriented."
2. Is "tell oriented."

1. Decides slowly.
2. Decides quickly.

1. Avoids risks.
2. Takes risks.

1. Exerts less pressure for decisions.
2. Exerts more pressure for decisions.

1. Has little eye contact.
2. Has intense and consistent eye contact.

1. Avoids conflict situations.
2. Is challenged by conflict situations.

Stop

Sum the numbers circled and record this score on the *horizontal* axis of the Interactive Style Grid. Draw a *vertical* line through the score. Proceed to "Sensitivity."

continued

Sensitivity

Circle the number of the appropriate response in each pair.

1. Limited use of gestures.
2. Gestures frequently.

1. Moves rigidly.
2. Moves freely.

1. Has little facial expressiveness.
2. Has marked facial expressiveness.

1. Seems serious.
2. Seems playful.

1. Appears reserved.
2. Appears friendly.

1. Is guarded in the expression of feelings.
2. Is free in the expression of feelings.

1. Focuses more on facts.
2. Focuses more on feelings.

1. Appears more task oriented than people oriented.
2. Appears more people oriented than task oriented.

1. Is less interested in small talk, anecdotes, and jokes.
2. Is more interested in small talk, anecdotes, and jokes.

1. Makes decisions based more on facts than on emotions.
2. Allows feelings to have a greater influence on decisionmaking.

1. Is disciplined in the use of time.
2. Is carefree in the use of time.

1. Supervises in a disciplined manner.
2. Supervises in a personal manner.

Stop

Sum the numbers circled and record this score on the *vertical* axis of the Interactive Style Grid. Draw a *horizontal* line through the score.

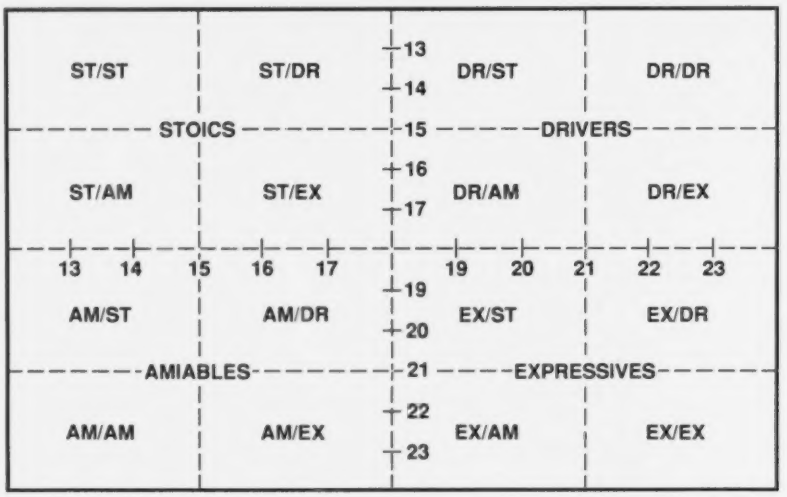
continued

INTERACTIVE STYLE SCORING GRID

The *horizontal* axis measures *assertiveness* (the degree to which behavior is forceful and direct). The higher the score, the higher the assertiveness.

The *vertical* axis measures *sensitivity* (the degree to which behavior is based on caring for people and their feelings). The higher the score, the higher the sensitivity.

The interactive style is indicated by the subquadrant in which the two lines intersect.



KEY: ST = Stoic
DR = Driver
AM = Amiable
EX = Expressive

—Adapted from Bolton and Bolton (1984) and Merrill and Reid (1981)

TIP Sheet 6
Style Strategies

To improve interaction accenting common behavior, de-emphasize your own style, or emphasize the other person's style. Assertiveness may be easier to increase or decrease than sensitivity.

De-emphasize Your Style

If you are a driver, listen.
If you are an expressive, restrain.
If you are an amiable, take a stand.
If you are stoic, stretch.

Be More Assertive (stoics or amiables interacting with drivers or expressives):

1. Lean forward; hold head erect; speak, move, and decide more quickly.
2. Increase intensity of voice and eye contact.
3. State ideas and proposals positively and directly, perhaps giving your opinion before asking for advice or feedback.
4. Voice disagreements and face conflict more openly.

Be Less Assertive (drivers or expressives interacting with stoics or amiables):

1. Relax; speak, move, and decide more slowly.
2. If expressive, reduce volume; if driver, reduce intensity.
3. Do not invade the person's space; break eye contact, if necessary.
4. Pause when speaking to allow the other person to respond. Ask open questions. Disagree tactfully. Provide assurances.

Be More Sensitive (drivers or stoics interacting with expressives or amiables):

1. Relax; use more gestures; and increase facial expression.
2. Tune into your own feelings and those of the other person. Let your emotions show. Limit references to facts and logic.
3. Use a lighter touch. Be less formal, more personal, and more fun.
4. Show concern for the effects of your actions.

Be Less Sensitive (amiables or expressives interacting with drivers or stoics):

1. Avoid touching. Expressives should restrain gestures.
2. Do not overdo stories, jokes, and small talk.
3. Be systematic, precise, and results oriented. Opinions, intuition, and testimonials carry little weight.
4. Get to the task; stick to it; and move on when finished.

Emphasize the Other's Style

With Amiables:

Be relaxed and moderately paced.
Speak softly; do not come on too strong.
Be genuine; make person-to-person contact, when possible.
Invite conversation and listen carefully for doubts, fears, or misgivings.
Encourage decisions, but be patient.
Offer your support and cooperation on shared goals.
Maintain contact and follow-up.
Listen for hidden messages in humor.

With Stoics:

Be on time; get down to business; and depart quickly.
Be prepared—do your homework.
Stand up to stoics without fighting or arguing.
Get their attention—calling them by name or standing deliberately.
Maintain eye contact.
Be specific, clear, and brief. State your opinions forcefully.
Present your proposals logically and focus on results.
Provide a limited number of options and pros and cons of each.

With Expressives:

Show energy and spontaneity.
Allow for small talk and socializing.
Avoid becoming dogmatic (expressives like to argue, frequently on both sides of an issue).
Relate to their dreams and aspirations.
Show how your ideas are supported by prominent and respected people.
Focus on the whole picture and how facts fit together.
Balance "having fun" with "getting things done."
Concisely state and restate agreements and action plans.

With Drivers:

Pace yourself moderately; do not be overly forceful.
Attempt to be more formal in behavior.
Be prepared, systematic, and logical.
List pros and cons—with alternatives to each.
Point out which approach is best; emphasize the low risk involved.

TIP Sheet 7
"Taking the Heat"

Criticism is sometimes fair, sometimes not. These guidelines can be used to appraise the criticism and decide whether to reject or accept it.

"Keep Your Cool"

Negative emotions waste energy. Try to channel your energy constructively.

1. *Recognize emotion.* Focus on the physical sensation, and then relax. Breathe deeply. Imagine a protective shield conserving your energy. Replace energy-wasting negative thoughts with energy-building positive thoughts.
2. *Depersonalize.* Try to view the situation as a detached observer might.
3. *Do not retaliate.* Countercriticism will bring only escalation of criticism.
4. *Do not defend.* The more you defend, the more you appear guilty. Be *reasonable* rather than *right*. Use excess listening capacity to seek more information, not to prepare denials or rebuttals.
5. *Seek more information.* What the person is saying may be helpful. Ask for clarification or an example. When and where did the incident occur; what was especially annoying about your behavior? Really listen.

If you feel you cannot "keep your cool," postpone your response.

Assess Soundness

Use the following criteria to judge the soundness of a criticism:

1. *Importance.* How important is the criticism? Do not fret over trivial concerns or shrug off major problems.
2. *Source.* Always remember to "consider the source."

Is the critic qualified to judge you? Ignorant critics are irritating, but becoming upset or defensive will not help. Either ignore them or change the subject.

Does she have ulterior motives? She may be trying to impress someone else by intimidating you. When you are being goaded, do not take the bait.

Is he under stress? Some people react to stress by lashing out at whomever happens to be nearby. They may let a small complaint build until they overreact.

3. *Consensual validation.* Do friends and colleagues agree with the critic? If so, then perhaps the criticism is valid.
4. *Frequency.* How often and from how many people do you hear this criticism? A frequent message from a wide audience is one to which you should attend.

Respond

Next, decide to reject the criticism completely, reject it partially, or accept it.

Reject

Criticism may be unjust. People respond in many ways to unjust criticism. Some apologize even when not at fault; others counterattack; still others say nothing, but later regret it. The best response is to *reject* unjust criticism with a positive "I"-statement. For example:

"I disagree that I am spending too much time on the project. What I am doing is important to me."

Reject criticism if you see no benefit from changing; if change is not possible; if you are satisfied as things are; or if the criticism is a value judgment.

Partially Reject

You can reject criticisms that are partial truths or exaggerations. For example, if you are criticized for *always* being late (and you are late, in this instance), you might respond:

"I'm sorry that I am late today and that this has inconvenienced you. However, this is an exception. I am usually quite punctual."

Accept

Channel the emotional energy generated by valid criticism into action for change.

1. *Acknowledge* the criticism with eye contact and a firm voice. For example: "You're right. That's something I really need to work on."

2. *Ask for help.* Enlist the help of the criticizer. Ask: "What would you do if you were me?" or "How can I do this better?"

No one enjoys criticism, but you can learn to deal with it.

—Adapted from Butler (1981) and
Weisinger and Lobsenz (1981)

TIP Sheet 8
Positive Confrontation

You are disappointed or annoyed by someone's behavior. You have tried to resolve the situation in a positive manner, but with little luck.

What We Usually Do

1. *Nothing.* Your anger and frustration builds. Make excuses for not acting.
2. *Complain.* Drag down your friends and supporters with negativism.
3. *Shame.* Try to make the person feel guilty.
4. *Lecture.* Tell the person what you could do, if you just had support.
5. *Attack.* Put the person in his or her "place" with a "you"-message.

These approaches, rather than resolving the problem, add to the deterioration of the relationship.

An Alternative

1. *Decide if the confrontation is worth it.* Confrontation takes energy.
2. *Time your confrontation.* As a rule, act quickly. Delay may be in order when the other person is under unusual stress, or when you are very angry.
3. *Speak privately, face-to-face.* Avoid small talk.
4. *Use and "I"-message.* Wording is crucial (see TIP Sheet 4 "Increasing Sensitivity). Consider scripting the message and rehearsing it with a trusted friend. Eliminate sarcasm, blame, exaggertaion, and judgment from your message.
5. *Listen.* Allow the other person to absorb your message, and to respond. No matter how polished your phrasing, the other person may be defensive, tune you out, joke, or change the subject. Do not be distracted or allow yourself to become caught in a vicious spiral of defense and counterattack.
6. *Reflect.* Summarize your understanding of the response. Use minimal encouragers. For example, "Tell me more" to elicit continued expression.
7. *Restate.* If your message is not acknowledged, restate it at the same level of intensity. When people become defensive, they often are really unable to hear and understand your message. Shift between listening, reflecting, and restating until a mutually satisfying solution is found. Be patient.
8. *Resolve.* When your message has been heard, or an acceptable alternative has been offered, reflect it back for further discussion.

Worksheet 11
Custom Application

Identify a situation you currently face that requires a confrontation. To help you plan the confrontation, respond briefly to the following questions.

1. What is the situation?

2. What have you done about it so far?

3. What needs to be done?

4. What is the optimum time?

5. What will you say? (Use the exact wording, as though you were talking to the person).

6. What might keep you from saying this?

7. What will you do to overcome this obstacle?

8. What did you learn from interactive styles that may help you with the confrontation?

Unit III. Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Overview

An understanding of group dynamics is essential to facilitate the group process. In Unit III, we build this conceptual and practical foundation.

Objective

—To build understanding of group dynamics and skills to facilitate group processes.

Glossary

Consensus: decisionmaking method that requires widespread agreement (consent) among all concerned.

Facilitating: a process of assisting a group in reaching its own goals.

Facilitator: a process specialist who guides a group.

Forming: first group phase, in which an aggregation of individuals begins to define their task, roles, and relationships.

Group: three or more people interacting to achieve a goal.

Group phases: sequential stages that groups tend to go through, over time.

Groupthink: when the tendency to agree interferes with critical thinking.

In-group/out-group bias: intergroup discrimination in favor of one's own group.

Majority rule: decisionmaking method in which agreement by 51 percent of the group members can determine the direction of the entire group.

Minority: one or more people in a group whose opinion differs from the majority.

Norming: third group phase, characterized by the development of cohesion and informal group standards of acceptable and nonacceptable behaviors.

Norms: informal rules that regulate group behavior.

Performing: fourth group phase, characterized by mobilization of resources and task accomplishment.

Social loafing: tendency for people to exhibit a sizable decrease in individual effort when performing in a group as compared to individual performance.

Stereotype: an exaggerated belief associated with a category.

*Storming:*second group phase, characterized by idea generation and interpersonal tension.

*Synergy:*when the combined effects of cooperation between two or more persons produce an effect that exceeds the sum of what the individual members could do alone.

Teamwork: the way people interact in the process of achieving a goal.

Taskwork: group work focused on achieving a goal.

Transforming: fifth group phase, characterized by disbanding, reverting, or regrouping.

Self-Assessment: Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Complete Part A before the session and Parts B and C following the session.

	Level of skill knowledge							
	Part A: Before unit				Part B: After unit			
KNOWLEDGE:	None	Little	Some	Much	None	Little	Some	Much
1. Strengths and weaknesses of consensus and majority decisionmaking	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2. Five group phases	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
3. Value of the minority voice	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
4. Types of groupthink	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
5. Difference between facilitating and manipulating	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
SKILL:								
6. How to make consensus decisions	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7. How to conduct brainstorming	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8. How to move out of groups	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9. How to facilitate a group	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10. How to avoid groupthink	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

Part C: What will you do differently in your Extension role as a result of this session?

Worksheet 12
Feelings During Forming

Upon joining a new group I generally (check your response):

__Prefer to sit quietly and listen to others.

__Feel quite at ease in participating in discussion.

__Find myself ready for some form of leadership role.

__Sometimes wish I could take over and structure the discussion.

__Feel ill at ease.

__Prefer to listen for a while and then participate in the discussion, after I have a feel for the group.

__Other (specify) _____

Group Discussion

How do you think the array of feelings in your group would compare with most groups with which you work?

TIP Sheet 9
Facilitating the Flow

Many practitioners skilled in group work have observed a "natural" ebb and flow in most groups. They see groups developing in a series of stages or phases. One popular model (Tuckman, 1965) suggests four stages: *forming*, *storming*, *norming*, and *performing*. A fifth stage, *transforming*, further strengthens this model. (See the following "Summary of Group Development Process" for an overview of each phase). A skilled facilitator recognizes these phases; follows the maxim to "trust the process"; and intervenes in the process only when essential.

Facilitating is the process of assisting a group in reaching its own goals. Facilitating may be an informal role played at various times by nearly all group members, an explicitly designated group role, or a highly formal and professional role played by an outsider. What these various players have in common is an ability to maintain neutrality toward the issue or task at hand. Not everyone is able to facilitate. Even skilled facilitators are disqualified if they are too close to the issue. The following suggestions may be helpful.

Maintain Appropriate Demeanor

As a rule, be low-key and relaxed. Limit your own talking to active listening and use reflection, minimal encouragers, and open questions. If you need help from the group, ask for it. If you make a mistake, admit it. Look and listen. Are people engaged—leaning forward and participating—or bored? If the group slumps, radiate energy, because your intensity is contagious. Move around; lean forward; use your hands; plan surprises; change the pace.

Make Roles, Norms, and Procedures Explicit

Be explicit about all roles and procedures, even specify them in contracts. Agree on a decisionmaking process before starting. Always explain *your own role*, perhaps as follows (Doyle and Strauss, 1976, p. 90):

> I am going to be your facilitator today. Being a facilitator means that I am not going to contribute my own ideas or evaluate yours. My role is to help you focus your energies on the task. I am going to try to remain neutral and to defend you from personal attack, if necessary. I'll make some suggestions, but only about the process of the meeting—ways to proceed, not matters of substance. This is *your* meeting. Being a good facilitator is difficult, so please help me. If you think I'm pushing too hard or manipulating you in any way, please let me know. If you correct me, I'll try not to be defensive. With your help, I'm sure we'll have a good meeting and get a lot done today.

Use Structured Techniques and Diagnostic Tools

Tools to promote constructive group interaction range from mixers (during the forming phase), to retreats (for team building or regrouping), to incorporating "group time" into meetings. Value clarification exercises and goal-setting and idea-generation techniques are valuable components of the facilitator's toolbox. Employ counternorms, such as routine reconsideration of decision or appointing a person to play the role of "devil's advocate."

Empower Group Members

Among the numerous ways to empower group members, always try to promote maximum communication, participation, and autonomy. Delegate responsibilities carefully for the personal development of each member. Although it may sometimes be necessary to protect the group from the aberrant individual (the "difficult" person), it is also important to protect the minority voice from attack.

Validate the Group

Let the group know that it is "O.K." For example, tension and frustration during the storming phase are normal; staff or board conflicts are not unusual; dissent is always difficult; and roles are not always clearcut.

Coordinate Logistics

Providing equipment and setting up chairs are mundane but essential tasks. When we are unable to delegate them, we must do them.

A fine line separates facilitating from manipulating. Both manipulators and facilitators are persons who share an acute sensitivity to situations, a large selection of behavioral options, and an ability to put others at ease. But, while manipulators seek to benefit themselves, facilitators seek to benefit the group.

—Adapted from Tuckman (1965), Doyle and Straus (1976), Bolton and Bolton (1984), and Vail (1985)

Summary Sheet 5. Group Development Process

Group Phase	Key Processes	Ups	Downs	Leader Behavior	Tools for Facilitators
Forming	Orienting				
	Getting acquainted	Meeting new people	Anxiety	Directing	TIP Sheet 9, Facilitating the Flow
	Setting direction —defining task —setting goals	Clarity	Confusion		TIP Sheet 10, Group Roles and Rules
	Taking first steps	Organization	Too much/too soon Rigidity		TIP Sheet 11, Majority Decisionmaking TIP Sheet 12, Consensus Decisionmaking
Storming	Reassessing Exploring options	Fun Excitement Diversity	Tension Conflict Bottoming-out Loss of members	Coaching	TIP Sheet 13, Agendas TIP Sheet 14, Structured Brainstorming TIP Sheet 15, Nominal Brainwriting TIP Sheet 16, Interactive Brainwriting
Norming	Resolving Evaluating Making decisions	Cohesion	Groupthink (stereotyping, self-censorship, direct pressure)	Supporting	TIP Sheet 17, Protecting the Minority Voice TIP Sheet 18, Preventing Groupthink TIP Sheet 19, Coping With Difficult People
Performing	Implementing	Closure Completion Synergy	Footdragging Social loafing	Delegating	TIP Sheet 20, Building Accountability
Transforming	Regrouping Disbanding Letting go	Time for new activities Reenergize Satisfaction	Holding on Sadness Sense of Loss Disappointment	Variable	TIP Sheet 21, Moving On

TIP Sheet 10
Defining Group Roles and Rules

To "get a handle" on group composition, know the roles that need to be filled in all groups:

Facilitator. Guides the group through the process of achieving its goals.

Idea person. Enthusiastic, creative, and engaging. To this person, all things are possible.

Quality controller. Every group needs someone to serve as inspector or critic.

Doer. Task-oriented person who gets things done. May be impatient with slow progress.

Team builder. "people" person concerned with group morale and working together.

External contact: provides access to resources outside the group.

Synthesizer: blends the best ideas into a compatible whole.

Chairperson/leader. Charged with responsibility for the group's output.

Recorder/Secretary. Serves as "group memory." May be formal secretary or someone who operates the tape recorder.

Rules

As an aid in assessing group composition, remember the following guidelines:

Every role needs a person.

Every person needs a role.

No person needs too many roles.

No role needs too many persons.

Some roles need more persons than others.

TIP Sheet 11
Majority Decisionmaking

Majority rule is an expedient way to make decisions and a hallmark of democracy. Parliamentary procedure is a formal method for implementing majority rule in a meeting. Its advantages include:

Advantages

- Makes judicious use of time.
- Implements the will of the majority.
- Preserves the rights of the minority.
- Preserves order in large groups.

Things get done in a meeting via the *motion*—a proposal that the group take certain action. It works like this:

1. A motion is introduced by saying "I move that . . . (a brief statement of the proposal)." No discussion is allowed.
2. The motion may be seconded by another member who wishes the matter to be considered further. If no one seconds, the motion dies.
3. Any member then can discuss the merits of the proposed action.
4. A vote is taken.

Disadvantages

Majority decisionmaking also has some disadvantages. As John Stuart Mill observed over a century ago, a majority of 51 percent has the potential to tyrannize a minority of as many as 49 percent.

- Can result in an uncommitted minority.
- Allows inadequate time for discussion.
- Pushes group toward a premature solution.
- Intimidates those unfamiliar with procedures.

Some of these shortcomings can be overcome by making a motion such as:

"I move that we take a few minutes to consider the problem before entertaining any solutions," or "I move we take five minutes to brainstorm a number of possible solutions before offering a motion."

TIP Sheet 12
Consensus Decisionmaking

A consensus decision is supported by widespread agreement among group members. The procedure takes considerable time and energy, but produces high-quality decisions. It is most effective when all involved understand their responsibility.

Powers of Consensus

- Ownership and commitment to implement.
- Clear delineation of issues or problems.
- Improved interpersonal communication.

Perils of Consensus

- Groupthink.
- Failure to express reservations.
- Time consuming.

The steps in consensus decisionmaking parallel those in standard problem solving, diverging only at Step 4.

Step 1. *Define the problem.*

Step 2. *Brainstorm all alternatives.*

Step 3. *Evaluate alternatives*:

> Explore as many views as possible. Give everyone a chance to be heard. Listen carefully. View disagreements as a source of new information, a way to clarify and test ideas, or a route to better alternatives.

Step 4. *Select alternatives:*

> Seek a *most* acceptable, win-win solution. To avoid deadlock, express dissent at the appropriate time and level.
>
> **Nonsupport:** "I don't see the need, but I'll go along."
>
> **Reservations**: "I think this may be a mistake, but I can live with it."
>
> **Standing aside**: "I personally can't do this, but I won't block others."
>
> **Dropping out**: "I quit."

Step 5. *Implement.*

Step 6. *Evaluate.*

—Adapted from Co-Op Board Training Manual (1983).

TIP Sheet 13
Agendas

Agendas are guides that expedite group accomplishment by focusing the discussion and making wise use of time. An effective agenda maximizes premeeting preparation.

Before the Meeting.

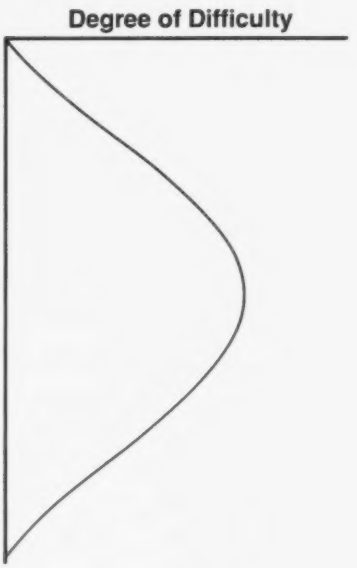
Gather information:

1. Review the minutes of the previous meeting for any unfinished business.
2. Seek input from members—new business, committee reports, or other items.

Prepare the agenda, including:

1. Name of group or meeting.
2. Purpose of the meeting (e.g., meeting, special meeting, planning meeting).
3. Date and place .
4. Starting and ending time.
5. Names of people who fill special roles (outside facilitator, observer, and resource person).
6. Agenda items. Since a group's attention span parallels a bell-shaped curve, place the easiest items at the beginning and ending of the meeting and the more difficult items around mid-meeting.

- Agenda review
- Group time
- Minutes, committee reports
- Routine decisions
- More difficult items
- Educational program
- "For discussion only" items
- Least difficult items
- Announcements
- Adjournment



7. The time required for each agenda item. Assign a specific time, for example: 7:15–7:30 p.m., rather than 15 minutes.
8. Persons responsible.
9. Background materials/special notes.
10. What to bring.

Mail the agenda and supplementary materials. They should arrive several days before the meeting.

During the Meeting

Agendas are effective only when followed. To make best use of agendas:

1. Start on time.
2. Accept additions or amendments to the agenda.
3. Invest "people" time by scheduling time for interaction, perhaps as much as 25 percent of the meeting. When interaction is healthy, the task seems to take care of itself.
4. Follow all reports with an action decision. What needs to be done?
5. Specify person(s) responsible for each action.

—Adapted from Doyle and Strauss (1976) and Sharpe (1984)

TIP Sheet 14
Structured Brainstorming

"The best way to get good ideas is to have lots of ideas."
—Linus Pauling

Brainstorming operates on the foregoing principle. Use brainstorming to:

- Generate many ideas in a short time.
- Encourage creative, spontaneous thinking.
- Help people temporarily suspend judgment.
- Expand or piggy-back on ideas.

Procedure

1. Identify a problem for discussion.
2. If more than 10 participants, divide into smaller groups.
3. Ask each group to select a recorder.
4. Explain the purpose and rules of brainstorming:

   Quantity is the goal. More ideas mean more likelihood of winners.

   Defer judgment. Do not criticize. Evaluation comes later.

   Be creative. Wild ideas are great, because they beget wilder ideas. It is easier to tame a wild idea than to think up new ideas.

   Combine and amend ideas. Expand; delete; consolidate; substitute; reverse; make analogies; make the problem bigger or smaller.

5. Brainstorm responses to the problem or question. The recorder lists all ideas on newsprint. Give a two-minute warning before calling time.
6. Analyze: discuss unfamiliar terms or ideas. Establish criteria for selecting the best ideas, then evaluate each idea against those criteria.
7. Action-plan: for the idea(s) chosen, outline the steps needed to implement the solution. List forces (e.g., situations, people, events) that work for or work against implementation of this solution. Decide how to build on strengths and minimize the barriers.

TIP Sheet 15
Brainwriting—Nominal Group Process

Purposes

- To generate ideas
- To promote participation
- To clarify ideas
- To establish group priorities

Preparation

Assemble index cards, newsprint pads, markers, tape or pins (for posting newsprint sheets). Develop question to be answered or statement to be completed. For example, "The biggest problems facing our group are . . ." or "We'd be a lot better off if. . . ."

Nominal Phase

1. Ask members to work individually to generate answers to an assigned question, or to complete a statement. No discussion allowed.
2. Select a person to record (on newsprint) one idea from each group member, in round-robin fashion, until all members have finished their lists.

Open Phase

3. Discuss; clarify; elaborate; add new ideas.
4. Condense or categorize.

Voting Phase

5. Select five items (more or less, depending on time available) from master list that you consider most critical.
6. Weight priorities, for example: 5 points for most important
   4 points for 2nd most important
   3 points for 3rd most important
   2 points for 4th most important
   1 point for 5th most important,

Consensus Phase

7. Have individuals vote.
8. Add up scores.
9. Consensus (if possible) on priorities.
10. Further discussion, if needed.

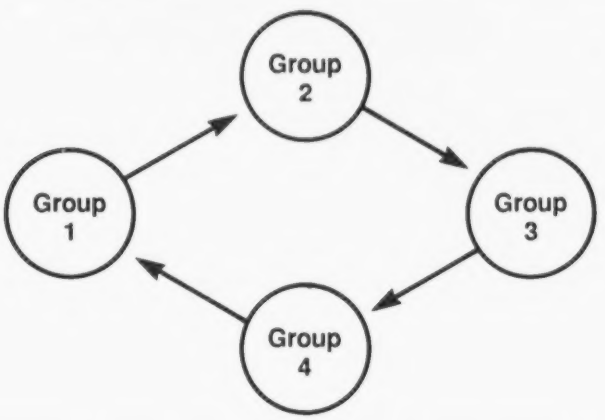
TIP Sheet 16
Interactive Brainwriting—The Charette

In the Charette method of generating ideas and setting priorities, members rotate from one small group to another. Used to:

- Encourage participation.
- Build upon ideas generated by others.
- Keep discussion alive and stimulating.

Procedure

1. Divide participants into groups of no more than seven members by counting off. Identify each group by number or name.
2. Ask each group to select a recorder, and assign the discussion topic. Establish a time limit for the group to brainstorm responses to the assigned topic and to record responses on newsprint or sheets of paper.
3. Give a two-minute warning before calling time. At the end of the designated interval, ask the recorder to take the responses from his or her group and then rotate to the next group, as shown here.



4. Ask each group to select a new recorder and to review the ideas generated by the previous group; add ideas; and rank the most significant ideas.
5. Repeat steps 2, 3, and 4 with a new topic or issue to discuss and new recorders. (For each time you repeat steps 2, 3, and 4, you will need new issues to discuss. You may work through steps 2, 3, and 4 from one to four times in a large group.)
6. Post the final lists and ask each group to review them for the entire group. Reach consensus, if possible. If not, ask a selected small group (perhaps the recorders) for each issue to meet to reach consensus in combining their reports.

—Adapted from Sue Peyton's materials, Iowa State University, Ames

TIP Sheet 17
Protecting the Minority Voice

A minority is one or more persons with different opinions from the majority. (This definition of a minority is distinct from a racial or ethnic minority, although such groups may be found in a "minority" position, as defined here.)

The minority stimulates group creativity. Diverse groups produce more solutions to a problem, and more workable solutions (Nemuth and Wachtler, 1983). Minority viewpoints are novel, and force a group to consider an issue more carefully. Solutions may be found that otherwise would have gone undetected. Minorities also help prevent groupthink.

Nonetheless, a vocal minority is often held in low esteem by the majority, which can exert powerful pressures to elicit conformity. The suppression of dissent may become a tyranny in which a majority of 51 percent can abuse a minority of 49 percent (Mill, 1859). People who voice a minority position risk being disliked, sanctioned, or alienated from the group. The group suffers if members quit or, even worse, become "footdraggers." Few groups can afford an uncommitted, alienated subgroup. Protecting the minority, even at the cost of some conflict, is sound group practice.

Here are some ways to protect the minority:

1. *Use consensus decisionmaking.* A minority is more likely to influence a group that is willing to explore all alternatives. A single individual is more likely to influence a group that is operating by consensus than by parliamentary procedure.
2. *Provide education.* Increase each member's awareness of group processes. Stress the positive contribution of the minority voice. Provide tips on how the minority voice can become more effective. For example:
   - Assess risks. Decide whether your "cause" is worth it.
   - Be consistent. Steady and coherent adherence to a position is persuasive.
   - Be fair. When the minority is seen as open-minded, the majority is more readily influenced because they see change as two-way.
   - Show independent judgment and commitment to principles.
   - Be confident. Self-assurance and the courage to speak up are admired.
   - Support your case. Do your homework and have facts at hand.
   - Build a coalition. A minority, of even one, can have impact. However, allies always help—not just quantity, but quality of allies.
   - Use one-to-one appeals. Personal appeals generally are most effective.

- Foot-in-the-door. Getting the majority to accept a small part of your posititon can work to help you obtain greater acceptance later.
- Show personal power. Let your actions reflect your confidence. For example, sit at the head of the table.

These strategies are not guaranteed, but even if they fail, they can make the group more creative, stimulate change, promote interpersonal growth, and open new channels of communication.

3. *Elicit unspoken concerns.* Use minimal encouragers. Members who hesitate to speak may sometimes need only a little encouragement.
4. *Develop counternorms.* Try second-chance decisionmaking or assigning a person to fill the role of "devil's advocate."
5. *Provide safe ways to express minority views.* The nominal group process is one technique.

—Adapted from Mill (1859), Moscovici (1976), and Nemuth and Wachtler (1983)

TIP Sheet 18
Preventing Groupthink

Group pressure for consensus can be so powerful, and group norms to "get along" so strong, that critical thinking may be sacrificed. Judgment can deteriorate, which results in poor decisions and unnecessary risk. This phenomenon is known as *groupthink.*

To circumvent groupthink:

1. *Plan group activities that increase awareness of group processes.* Members then understand the importance of exploring all alternatives and airing all objections and doubts. This awareness can create a ripple effect and improve many aspects of the group's performance.
2. *Develop explicit counternorms.* For example,

- Assign one or more group members the role of critical evaluator;
- Appoint one or more group members to play the "devil's advocate"; or
- Hold second-chance meetings following preliminary decisions, at which time every member must express any residual doubts before the decision becomes final.

3. *Invite outsiders to visit the group.* This is a subtle way of preventing a group from slipping unaware into stereotyping.
4. *Share or rotate leadership (or other roles).* This move can empower more group members while, at the same time, reducing status deference.
5. *Use structured techniques.* For example, use of the nominal group process of guaranteeing input from all members serves to reduce status or expertise deference. The pool of ideas increases as the inhibiting effects of status decrease.
6. *Use a facilitator.* Assign this role to one or more group members. To deal with unusual stress or controversy, consider obtaining the services of a professional facilitator.

TIP Sheet 19
Coping With the Difficult Person

Almost every group has one. You may cringe just at the thought of the "difficult" person. Difficult people are small in number, but large in the damage they do. They are hard to understand; they seem immune to standard techniques of persuasion; their behavior is predictably difficult. Facing such persons is frustrating and demoralizing.

General Strategies

1. *Accept.* Accept, rather than ignore, disruptive behavior. However difficult, validate the person and his or her feelings. You can rarely change the behavior of the other person.
2. *Distance.* Put some space between you and the difficult behavior. Develop a detached view of the difficult person. Distance gives perspective.
3. *Strategize.* Plan your timing and prepare for confrontation. Sometimes a delay is in order. Adjust strategy when or if necessary.
4. *Escalate.* Generally, begin with the most subtle and least threatening intervention. Save direct confrontation as a last resort.
5. *Cut losses.* If your strategies for coping do not work, abandon your efforts. Do not wait until the situation has done you more harm.

Seven Types of Difficult People and Tactics for Coping

1. *Bullies* overwhelm you by bombardment. They make cutting remarks or throw temper tantrums when they do not get their way. *Tactics:*
   - Stand up to them. Bullies often are friendly after being stood up to.
   - Give them time to run down.
   - Have them sit down; this will make them less aggressive.
   - Speak for yourself with "I"-messages; avoid "you"-messages.
   - Do not threaten.

2. *Complainers* gripe incessantly, but never take action. They either feel powerless or do not want to be responsible for a solution. *Tactics:*
   - Listen attentively, even though it will be difficult.
   - Reflect the complaint, but do not agree.
   - Be prepared to interrupt, because complainers love to ramble.
   - Ask for specifics.
   - State the facts without comment and without apology.

3. *Silent-unresponsives* answer questions and requests with "yep," "no," a grunt, or "I-don't-know," but never with longer answers. *Tactics:*
   - Ask open-ended questions.
   - Pause for long periods, inviting them to fill the void.
   - Comment on what is happening in the discussion.
   - Break the tension by helping them to say what they are thinking.
   - Limit the length of the discussion.

4. *Superagreeables* are always reasonable, sincere, and supportive in your presence. But they may not produce what they say they will, or may act contrary to expectations. *Tactics:*
   - Let them know they can be honest.
   - Be personable, if you can, and only if you mean it.
   - Discourage unrealistic commitments that they cannot possibly fulfill.
   - Be prepared to compromise so that you are both in a win situation.
   - Listen to their humor—in which they often hide the truth.

5. *Negativists* object to everything. Whatever is proposed will not work, or is impossible. They can completely deflate your optimism for a project. *Tactics:*
   - Avoid getting drawn into their attitude.
   - State your own realistic optimism.
   - Do not agree with them.
   - Do not hurry to propose solutions.
   - Remember that a "devil's advocate" can be useful.

6. *"Know-it-alls"* believe and want you to believe that they know all there is to know about anything worth knowing. They may be condescending, imposing, or pompous. *Tactics:*
   - Do your homework on the subject.
   - Listen to and acknowledge what they say.
   - Question them firmly, but do not confront. They hate being wrong.
   - Avoid being a counterexpert.
   - Let them be the experts they think they are.

7. *Indecisives* put off until tomorrow things that need to be done today. They may avoid deciding until decisions must be made for them. They will not "let go" until things are perfect (which they never are). *Tactics:*
   - Bring issues out in the open; pursue all signs of indecision.
   - Help them solve the problem by suggesting or ranking alternatives.
   - Support them after they have finally made a decision.
   - If at all possible, keep control of what you are working on.
   - Watch for signs that they are being overloaded by pressure to decide.

—Adapted from Bramson (1981)

TIP Sheet 20
Building Accountability

Missed deadlines, misunderstood expectations, and "footdragging" all affect group performance. In most cases, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." Work to establish "ownership" in the early stages of the group.

1. *Make norms and procedures explicit.* Make certain that everyone understands and "buys" idea of deadlines, procedures, and accountability.
2. *Develop an explicit plan of work.* There is no substitute for an explicit plan of action. Clearly specify *who* does *what* by *when.*

- *Who?* Everyone knows who is doing what job.
- *What?* Each job is stated so that it is clear what it entails and when it is to be done.
- *When?* The deadline is clear (write it down). Use external deadlines (such as printer's schedule, announcement in mass media).

3. *Select the accountability pattern that works best for your group:*

- *Traditional:* each person reports to the same boss (leader).
- *Circular:* each person reports to the next person.
- *Pairwise:* each pair consults regularly on progress and problems.
- *Group:* each person reports to the group as a whole.

4. *Make the consequences of missing deadlines clear.*

- *For the group:* someone else is delayed; the project cannot happen.
- *For the person:* how to deal with someone who does not get things done.

5. *Make commitments public.* Record commitments in the meeting minutes and the plan of work, and, when appropriate, in newsletters or newspapers.
6. *Give credit.* If commitments are made public, give public credit to those responsible for a job well done.

TIP Sheet 21
Moving On

Groups transform. Members come and members go. Changing priorities may require breaking away from a group. In Extension, group roles are often temporary, and there are always other groups with which to work.

Holding On

Letting go can be difficult. There are several reasons why we hold on:

- *We may fear that the group will fail without us.* This reason probably is false (we really are not indispensable). If we *are* the only thing preventing collapse, maybe the group has outlived its purpose.

- *We may fear not being needed.* If our role is to facilitate, to work with, then we have *succeeded* when we are no longer needed. Not being needed by one group allows us to move on to where we *are* needed; there is little chance of running out of work!

- *We may have succumbed to tradition* ("I have always met with that group"). We may be unaware of this powerful pressure, even as we are overwhelmed with commitments. Being locked into traditional roles reduces energy available for personal and professional growth in other directions.

- *The group may resist letting us go.* Members may have become dependent on us, unsure of their own capabilities. Or they may see us as "free staff assistance." Learning to rely on their own resources can strengthen group cohesion and commitment.

Letting Go

- *Plan ahead.* Careful planning assures graceful exits. When organizing a group, decide whether your role is to be convenor only, convenor and leader, convenor and group member, convenor and facilitator, or what. Communicate your role from the outset. Set a date for "turning over the reins," and occasionally remind the group of this date.

- *Consider "how things look."* Your departure must not appear to discount the group's importance or demonstrate some displeasure with the group, but rather to confirm that the group is capable on its own.

- *Consider gradual disengagement.* To disengage gradually from the group, reduce your level of participation, the number of meetings attended, and responsibilities accepted; identify existing and new leaders; delegate responsibilities to new and emerging leaders; or support leadership development workshops.

If you choose to remain in the group, you may redefine your role from leader or organizer to technical assistant, adviser, facilitator, or recorder. These roles allow you to have input without dominating, or to work behind the scenes, without reinforcing dependency.

Worksheet 13
Groupthink

Groupthink means that pressure for consensus is so powerful, and group norms to "get along" so strong, that critical thinking is sacrificed, judgment deteriorates, and unnecessary risks are taken. Poor decisions are the result.

Match these symptoms of groupthink to the statements that illustrate them:

___ stereotyping
___ self-censoring
___ direct pressuring

1. "I must be the only one who has doubts."
2. "Don't upset the apple cart."
3. "I'm *sure* we all agree."
4. "They don't understand what we are trying to do."
5. "That's the way they all are."
6. "I don't want to be a nay-sayer."
7. "What could go wrong?"
8. "Well, you're the expert."

Stereotyping

Each extra member in a group increases the group's *complexity*. We cope with complexity by stereotyping or categorizing people. This often useful ability can have serious side effects, such as sexism and racism. What other "isms" can you think of that result from stereotyping or categorizing?

Worksheet 14
Twelve Angry Men Review

Consensus

Following procedure

Listening to others

Expressing

Minority Voice

Personal appeals

Fairness

Consistency

Independence

Confidence

Groupthink

Direct Pressure

Self-Censorship

Stereotyping

Problem-solving Errors

Faulty Information

Faulty Assumptions

Faulty Conclusions

Faulty Definition of Problem

Misevaluating Consequences of Decision

Violating Procedures

Networking

Strategies

Resources

Exchanges

Communication

Passive

Assertive

Aggressive

Verbal

Nonverbal

"I"-messages

"You"-messages

Interactive Styles

Stoics

Amiables

Drivers

Expressives

Role Analysis

Facilitator

Idea Person

Quality Controller

Doer

Team Builder

Chairperson/Leader

Recorder/Secretary

Forming

Getting Acquainted

Defining Tasks and Goals

Storming

Idea Generation

Tension

Bottoming Out

Norming

Group Cohesion

Groupthink

- **Stereotyping**
- **Self-Censorship**
- **Direct Pressure**

Performing

Social Loafing

Footdragging

Synergy

Unit IV. Making Sense of Organizations

Overview

The complexity of groups is magnified many times in an organization. Understanding organizations is critical, because most of Extension's group work occurs in the context of organizations—Extension, in particular, and also in and with a diverse array of public and private organizations. Four perspectives can help us make sense of organizations: *structural, cultural, people,* and *political.*

Objective

—To build understanding of organizations, in general, and Extension, in particular.

Glossary

Adaptability: ability to conform readily to new circumstances.

Adoptability: extent to which an innovation can be utilized readily.

Alignment: the fit between organizational and individual needs.

Centralized organization: focuses on shared meanings and values, as expressed in tradition, ceremony, logo, or myth.

Effectiveness: doing the "right" thing.

Efficiency: doing things right.

Formal organization: one with written, standardized rules and procedures.

Hierarchical networks: based on formal relationships in an organization, as shown in the organizational chart.

Horizontal complexity: number of functional departments or geographic locations.

Innovation: a new way of doing or organizing things.

Lateral information system: a system of horizontal information forms that resemble networks with more linkages to the environment.

Participative networks: based on informal relationships that are fluid and that cross administrative levels and departments.

People perspective: focuses on how organizations meet the needs of employees and how employees meet the needs of organizations.

Political perspective: concentrates on the distribution of scarce resources, and the struggle of people to maintain or increase their share of those resources.

Retrenchment: process that occurs in public service organizations when significant budget cuts take place.

Structural perspective: focuses on formal systems on roles and responsibilities.

Vertical complexity: number of layers in an organization.

Vertical information system: traditional hierarchical system of accountability and evaluation.

Self-Assessment: Making Sense of Organizations

Complete Part A before the session and Parts B and C following the session.

	Level of skill knowledge							
	Part A: Before unit				**Part B** After unit			
KNOWLEDGE:	None	Little	Some	Much	None	Little	Some	Much
1. The benefits and costs of organizational culture	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2. Differences between formal and informal structure	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
3. Differences between public and private organizations	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
4. Four reasons why organizations resist change	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
5. Lateral versus vertical information systems	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
SKILL:								
6. How to measure the structure of an organization	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7. How to assess the adoptability of an innovation	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8. How to conduct a force-field analysis	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9. How to gain adoption of an organizational innovation	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10. How to bring about organizational change	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

Part C: What will you do differently in your Extension role as a result of this session?

Worksheet 15
Organizational Structure

Organizational structure can be measured with five yardsticks. Place an "X" where you think Extension as an organization would fall on each yardstick.

In your state?

Unwritten Rules Only	———	Written Rules Only
Decentralized Power	———	Concentrated Power
Small	———	Large
Few Levels	———	Many Levels
Few Units	———	Many Units

In the U.S.:

Unwritten Rules Only	———	Written Rules Only
Decentralized Power	———	Concentrated Power
Small	———	Large
Few Levels	———	Many Levels
Few Units	———	Many Units

Worksheet 16
Organizations As Cultures

Some elements of organizational culture are:

- Heroes
- Creeds
- Logos
- Values
- Symbols
- Myths
- Ceremonies
- Mottos

Identify the aspects of Extension's culture by drawing from the foregoing list.

_____

_____

_____ I believe in people . . . I believe that the Extension Service is a link . . . I believe in public institutions. . . . Because I believe these things. . .

_____ Seaman Knapp

_____

_____ "Helping people help themselves."

Worksheet 17
Making Change

"Change masters are people and organizations adept at the art of anticipating the need for, and of leading, productive change"

—Kanter, 1983

Organizations resist change. What are some:

structural reasons?

_____

_____

_____

people reasons?

_____

_____

_____

cultural reasons?

_____

_____

_____

political reasons?

_____

_____

_____

Worksheet 18
Degrees of Publicness

Locate Extension in your state on the publicness grid.

—Reprinted from Bozeman (1987)

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Worksheet 19
Change in the Private Sector

What can we learn about innovation from other organizations? Consider a private sector organization with a reputation for innovation: the 3M Corporation.

What does the following reveal about 3M's culture?

> When his bosses told entrepreneur Phil Palmquist to stop working on reflective coatings because that wasn't his job, he continued four nights a week from 7:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m. Soon he had a product 100 times brighter than white paint. Among other things, it now lights up roadway signs at night when your headlights shine on them. In a more extreme case, George Swenson, another 3M entrepreneur, was fired when he wouldn't stop working on a new roofing material. He continued working on the project despite the fact that he was no longer employed. Once he had it working, the company relented and rehired him. By treasuring such stories, 3M encourages others to try to innovate despite opposition.

What about 3M's structure?

> Ames Smithers, a *Wall Street Journal* reporter, calling in the late 1950s to write an article about the 3M company, interviewed President Buetow. The newsman mentioned at one point that his understanding of 3M would be enhanced considerably if he could see an organization chart.
>
> Buetow changed the subject, almost as though he had not heard. The visitor repeated his request several times. Still no direct response from Buetow.
>
> Finally, in growing exasperation, the reporter interjected, "From your reluctance to talk about or show me an organization chart, may I assume you don't even have one?"
>
> "Oh, we have one all right," Buetow replied, reaching sheepishly into his desk drawer. "But we don't like to wave it around. There are some great people here who might get upset if they found out who their bosses are."

And what about people at 3M?

> As our business grows, it becomes increasingly necessary to delegate responsibility and to encourage men and women to exercise their initiative. This requires considerable tolerance. Those men and women to whom we delegate authority and responsibility, if they are good people, are going to want to do their jobs in their own way. These are characteristics we want and should be encouraged as long as their way conforms to our general pattern of operation. Mistakes will be made, but if a person is essentially right, the mistakes he or she makes are not as serious in the long run as the mistakes management will make if it is dictatorial and undertakes to tell those under its authority exactly how they must do their job. Management that is destructively critical when mistakes are made kills initiative and it's essential that we have many people with initiative, if we're to continue to grow.

—Adapted from Pinchot, 1985

Tip Sheet 22
Innovation in Organizations

An innovation may be a new service, a new product, or a new internal arrangement. To bring about innovative change, consider the following process.

Germinate

1. *The idea.* Identify a need, "plant seeds," and informally "sound out" the feasibility of the idea.
2. *The initiators.* Start small. Two or three people who see merit in the idea and who are willing to make tentative plans are all that is needed.
3. *A low profile.* Since an organization's immune system naturally rejects anything new, resist the urge to "broadcast" your plans.

Do Homework

1. How adoptable is the idea? Consider the acronym—A VICTORY!

A—ability to carry out change
V—values (of individual, group, organization, culture)
I—information about the innovation (facts)
C—context (organizational structure as well as circumstances)
T—timing (readiness to consider the idea)
O—obligation ("felt need" to address a problem)
R—resources and resistance (strength)
Y—yield (potential payoff after costs).

2. Return to R

What resources are needed for the idea to be adopted, and from what networks can they be obtained? *Legitimation* is most important. If, after informally "sounding out" your idea among peers and immediate supervisors, you "hear" sufficient encouragement, seek formal legitimation from relevant superiors.

What resistance can be anticipated? Will it spring from *people, structure, culture* (tradition), or *power?* Will it be passive or active? Conduct a *force-field analysis* and develop strategies to handle the opposition.

Design Team

Teams provide the interpersonal power needed to change organizations and spread the risk. Build around your "heart"—the small, core group of initiators. To get the most from your team, consider both group size and composition.

Size. The "rule of small number" suggests that small is better—just enough members to do the work. Recruit new members for specific tasks or processes.

Composition. Process skills are needed as much as technical expertise. Moderate diversity (whether gender, expertise, geographic locale, or other factor) is an asset. The right kinds of people are also needed to accomplish the task. Consider the following checklist:

Idea person
Quality controller
Implementor (doer)
Team builder (process person)
Chairperson or leader
Recorder or secretary
Facilitator

Every role needs filling (one member can meet several needs). Avoid role redundancy (too many people filling the same role).

Plan

Process is as important as the product. The *product* of planning is a blueprint for implementation to assure that expectations are understood. The *process of planning* builds ownership and, by garnering input from all team members, maximizes interpersonal power, thus assuring a higher quality product. Some additional provisos:

- Underpromise, and overdeliver.
- Plan for information management.
- Provide motivationally engaging tasks—whole and meaningful pieces of work with visible outcomes and significant consequences for others.
- Plan for contingencies (resistance and rain).
- Schedule regular team meetings well in advance.
- Clearly specify action steps (who does what by when)
- Affirm commitments publicly and in the record (minutes).

Mobilize

- *Implement information strategy.* Maintain a favorable impression with team members and legitimizers through timely, accurate, and succinct information. Inviting superiors in for progress reports also can minimize "footdragging."
- *Counterresistance.* Invite resisters in (co-opt). Or try appealing to a "larger principle or purpose," or demonstrating support, either through number or power of supporters. If time allows, wait it out or wear resisters down.
- *Retool.* Implement preformulated contingency plans, or allocate slack resources to "crisis management," when the crisis arrives.

Knapp-Sackers Exercise

Scenario

Extension is in trouble. The Knapp-Sacker party has somehow swept the election. The party takes a unique approach to state government. The new Governor has sent the following memo to state-funded agencies.

To: Special State Task Forces

I am happy to be serving you as the new governor. During these times of budget cuts, I will do my best to make rational, clear-headed decisions, but I must make my biases know right away. I am reluctant to provide full funding to organizations that are not flexible, adaptable, and innovative, so I am holding a contest to rate your organization on these criteria.

Tomorrow I will meet with representative teams from a number of state agencies, including Extension. The teams will be given one of the following tasks to accomplish within a limited amount of time:

A *Dinosaur Named QWERTY.* Your task is to facilitate the adoption of the Dvorak keyboard in Extension in your state. This keyboard is much more efficient than the QWERTY keyboard.

Crossing County Lines. Your task is to increase the quantity of cross-county programming and coordination in Extension by 25 percent. Recent budget cuts have made increased joint county programming essential.

Paper-Reduction Caper. Paper is accumulating to dangerous levels in state government. Your task is to develop a plan for a pilot project to reduce the flow of paper in Extension by 25 percent.

Those who accomplish the task will be given top priority for full funding. Please advise your representative task forces to approach this task diligently.

Sincerely,

Elwood Frudwump

Governor Elwood Frudwump

Office of the Governor:
Accountability Form

A. Name of team:

B. Team motto:

C. Category of competition (check one):

_____ A Dinosaur Named "Qwerty"

_____ Crossing County Lines

_____ Paper-Reduction Caper

D. Plan to implement the change:

Step 1. Describe the present situation.

Step 2. State your purpose or goal.

Step 3. Identify resisters. (What blocks your progress?)

Step 4. Identify assisters. (What forces promote your success?)

Step 5. Brainstorm how to weaken each resister and strengthen each assister.

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Unit V. Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Overview

Working with other organizations is an important part of the Extension professional's role. To do so successfully requires an understanding of the benefits, costs, difficulties, and techniques of coordination.

Objective

—To build skills in interorganizational relations.

Glossary

Action set: purposive coalition of organizations working together to accomplish a specific purpose.

Administrative linkages: fiscal practices; personnel practices; joint planning, delivery, and evaluation; and administrative service.

Assisters: factors that promote coordination.

Domain consensus: agreement of each of the parties to coordination is legitimate.

Interorganizational coordination: a process whereby two or more organizations create or use exis
qing decisionmaking rules to deal collectively with a shared task environment.

Interorganizational relations: connections in a network in which the players are organizations, not people.

Network of organizations: all interactions between organizations in a population.

Organization set: the sum of interorganizational linkages established by an organization.

Resisters: factors that constrain or impede coordination.

Service linkages: coordination outreach, or referral of clientele.

Self-Assessment: Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Complete Part A before the session and Parts B and C following the session.

	Level of skill knowledge							
	Part A: Before unit				**Part B:** After unit			
KNOWLEDGE:	None	Little	Some	Much	None	Little	Some	Much
1. Differences between networking and coordination	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2. Benefits and costs of coordination	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
3. Five coordination choices	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
4. Extension's organizational set	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
5. Coordination assisters and resisters	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
SKILL:								
6. How to build trust among organizations	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7. How to weigh costs and benefits of coordination.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8. How to increase chances of success.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9. How to attain domain consensus	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10. How to facilitate coordination among organizations	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

Part C: What will you do differently in your Extension role as a result of this session?

TIP Sheet 23
Facilitating Interorganizational Relations

Extension staff who are skilled in facilitating interorganizational relations can reap great rewards because of Extension's unique interorganizational network position (Patton, 1986, p. 17):

> Extension, more than any other organization in modern and future society, sits at the center between the government sector, the public nonprofit sector, the private nonprofit sector, and the private business sector.

Because most coordinated efforts are implemented by groups, this tremendous potential can be realized only with Extension staff who are skilled in the fundamentals of networking, interpersonal relations, and facilitating group work (assisting a group to achieving its own goals). They also must understand their own organization and other organizations (because each organization will have unique employees, cultures, structures, and political agendas).

Choices

Corodination is essential in a complex world. We cannot choose not to coordinate, but we can develop our skills and make good choices about how best to coordinate, why to coordinate, with whom we coordinate, when to coordinate, what to coordinate, and to what extent to coordinate.

How? Sometimes we are a number of the interorganizational effort (insider); at other times, we are a third party (outsider). This distinction is most important. Both have advantages and disadvantages.

With whom? You may coordinate with either private or public organizations, or a mixture of the two.

Or, you may coordinate horizontally (for example, organizations within one community) or vertically (for example, with organizations at different levels of government—local, state, regional, or national).

Remember the rule of small numbers. Complications and frustrations seem to expand exponentially with the addition of every extra organization and respective representative(s).

When? When you *must* (mandated)

When resources dictate. Paradoxically, this may be when resources are either abundant or scarce. When resources are scarce, some organizations may place priority on their own goals. Others may choose to coordinate in order to survive.

When time permits.

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What? Resources: facilities, space, staff/people, equipment, supplies, funds.

Programs/services: workshops, direct service to clientele.

To What Extent? Coordination is manifested in many degrees. For example, structure may range from loose and informal to highly formal. One phase of a program may be coordinated, such as planning, or all phases may be coordinated (planning, implementing, and evaluation). A single resource may be shared, or many resources may be shared.

Groundwork

Essential Answers. If you can answer each of these questions with a "yes" before beginning a coordinated effort, your chances of success increase greatly. You also may find these questions useful in troubleshooting problems in an ongoing effort.

1. Is each organization committed to the problem?
2. Is each organization committed to coordinate to solve the problem?
3. Does each organization believe that every other organization has the right to be involved? (Also called *domain consensus.*)
4. Do the benefits outweigh the costs for each organization? Consider whether coordination will:

   . . . enhance or distract from image.

   . . . save or cost time.

   . . . save or cost money.

   . . . result in better or worse service to clientele.

   . . . result in a better or poorer quality of product.

   . . . promote or suppress innovation or new programs.

5. Do the assisters outweigh the resisters? Any of the following may be either an assister or resister.

   People: Do the people from each organization know one another personally? Knowing is not enough; the acquaintance must be one of liking or respect.

   Power: Is the balance of power such that all parties can benefit from coordination? The loss of autonomy (the right or power of self-governance) is a powerful resister.

Purpose: Do the participants share a common purpose or goal?

Past Efforts: Can they build on past efforts? Only positive experiences assist.

Proximity: Do the participants live in convenient proximity? Difficulties increase as distance increases.

If the answer to any of these questions is "no," develop strategies to get to "yes." Some of the following may work for you:

1. **Emphasize the goal.** To reach an important goal, it is sometimes necessary to work together. Reinforce the importance of the goal.
2. **Seek help from legitimizers.** Be careful—this tactic an backfire!
3. **Build trust.** "Put your cards on the table." Discuss frankly assisters and resisters. If necessary, employ an outside facilitator. Spend time together so familiarity can build.
4. **Alter cost/benefit ratio.** Reduce or redistribute costs or increase or redistribute payoffs. Give more credit or visibility to the reluctant cooperator, or obtain additional funding to increase the payoff.
5. **Redefine the essential participants.** Perhaps some members of the current effort are expendable (they are more trouble then they are worth). Perhaps there are others who need to be involved.

Management/Maintenance

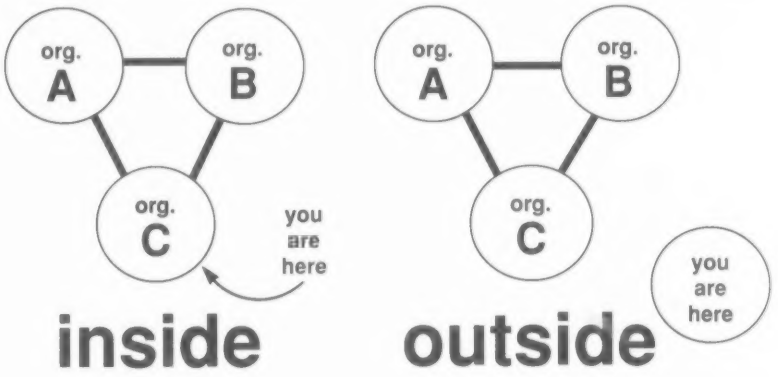
Coordinated efforts can be difficult to maintain. In managing a coordinated effort, be explicit about working arrangements, such as structure (level of formality) and resource flow (*what* resources will be exchanged and also the *extent* and *direction* of resource exchange).

Anticipate frustration. Allocate extra time for setting goals and for building interpersonal relationships. Be aware that sudden changes affecting any organizational partner (for example, budget cuts, personnel changes, or structural reorganization) may hinder joint efforts.

But don't despair! Despite predictable difficulties, you can facilitate interorganizational relations. You do it anyway, every day. Just strive to think more systematically about what you are doing; look for opportunities to improve your skills; and strive to increase the rewards relative to the costs.

—Adapted from Mulford and Klonglan (1982), Mulford (1984), and Whetten (1987)

Worksheet 20
Facilitating From the Inside/Out



1. Discuss when you have been in either role. (Do not select situations where Extension has been designated as the lead agency.)

2. Which role are you in most frequently? Why?

3. In which role do you feel most comfortable? Why?

4. What do you see as the strengths and weaknesses of each role?

continued

5. What might have been done to make a good experience even better?

6. For either role, select a case example from your group and answer the following questions.

   a. Was each organization committed to the problem?

   b. Was each organization committed to coordinate to solve the problem?

   c. Did each organization believe that every other organization had the right to be involved?

   d. Did the benefits outweigh the costs for each organization? (Consider time, money, and effect on quality of service or product or innovation.)

   e. Did the assisters outweigh the resisters? (Think of people, power, purpose, past efforts, proximity.)

   f. What might have been done to circumvent the problems?

      - More emphasis on the goal?

      - Seeking help from legitimizers?

      - Building trust (by "putting cards on the table," frankly discussing assisters/resisters, employing an outside facilitator, spending more time together)?

      - Altering the cost/benefit ratio (by either reducing or redistributing the costs), or increasng or redistributing the payoffs (giving more credit or obtaining additional resources)?

      - Redefining the essential participants?

Case Study 2: Coordinating for Conservation

Last fall, a four-year soil commissioner development program was piloted in the State of Frenzy. This program was the culmination of many months of inter-agency planning. The planning committee included representatives from the Soil Conservation Service (Rudy Ronson and long-time staffer, Weldon Eber); Extension (sociologists Tom Tate and Lettie Bales; agronomist Nim Ayimema; and graduate student T.J. Toban); the Division of Soil Conservation in the state department of agriculture (Ben Kuhne and Jim Gillespie); and the state Association of Soil Conservation District Commissioners (president, Barry Leeler; president-elect, Ben Furrows; and soil commissioners, Darcy Revert and Dan Beane). Key actors in launching this ambitious project was Rudy Ronson, staff member from the state office of the USDA Soil Conservation Service. The groups represented have a long history of working together, but this new effort was unique in its breadth and the plan to have experienced commissioners do part of the teaching.

In the interim between the pilot and the target date for program implementation, the state association hired its first salaried staff person, Andy Handy. Rudy Ronson, in view of her many successes, was promoted and given a position with SCS in Washington, D.C.; Ben Furrows took over as president of the association. Weldon Eber took a new position at a southern land-grant university. Tom Tate lost his Extension position to budget cuts. A major reorganization of Frenzy state government occurred.

Meanwhile, the program-planning committee decided that the time commitment needed for peer teaching exceeded what one could expect from a volunteer commissioner. Scheduling questions arose. Commissioners who are farmers (the majority) prefer day meetings, but the proportion of farmers among the new commissioners is decreasing. Darcy, a school teacher, much prefers evening or weekend meetings. Things seem to be falling apart. Lettie drove to a meeting, only to find it had been canceled without anyone informing her. A different set of actors is present at every meeting. Many of the commissioners are farmers whose attendance is contingent on the weather.

The last meeting of the soil commissioner development program has been canceled and rescheduled and canceled again (without rescheduling).

1. What is the problem?

2. Identify assisters.

3. Identify resisters.

4. You are Lettie Boles. What strategies would you use to facilitate progress?

5. What are the chances for success?

Case Study 3: Coordinating City Services

The city council in a small midwestern city is concerned with the proliferation of human-service agencies and programs. Many of these agencies and programs are extremely small, with a staff of five or fewer persons. Every year brings a prolonged budgeting battle to obtain city and county funding to support human services. With loss of revenue sharing, the situation will only worsen. The city council has mandated that sets of agencies with related functions (day care, health, and so forth) develop plans to consolidate. All day-care centers that receive any city funding are required to participate. The purpose is to save money by pooling administrative and other overhead costs.

You have been asked to facilitate the procedure among four day-care centers. For each, the city and county fund a small but increasingly important portion of the total budget. "Children's Services," the largest center, administers four day-care sites and a citywide health clinic. "Community Day Care" is smaller, but is the oldest center in town. "Nevada Day Care," a small rural center, is on the verge of bankruptcy. "College Day Care" provides care primarily for the children of parents who attend the community college.

During the first few meetings with representatives of the day-care centers, the chances for success were beginning to look good. But, then, progress stalled. Major stumbling blocks were who was to administer the consolidated program and teacher pay scales. The board of "Children's Services," "Nevada Day Care," and "College Day Care" approved the plan to consolidate. The board of directors of "Community Day Care" voted it down.

1. What is the problem?

2. Identify assisters.

3. Identify resisters.

4. What strategy will you use to facilitate progress?

5. What are the chances for success?

Instructional Aids

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and the Department of Adult and Community College Education
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Instructional Aids for Module 5

The following instructional aids, developed to accompany Module 5, are provided to assist workshop leaders in conducting effective learning experiences. These materials are referred to in the Leader's Guide and elsewhere in this Module. They are listed here by the unit in which they are used. Leaders may find this checklist helpful in ensuring that all necessary materials are on hand before presenting this Module.

The instructional aids include masters from which transparencies can be made using whatever type of equipment is available locally. Tips on producing transparencies are given at the end of this section.

Introduction and Orientation

Slides 1 through 13

Poster 1. Everything else being equal.

Poster 2. All actions generate power.

Unit I. Networking

Slides 14 through 38

Game package: "Birds of a Feather"

Unit II. Communicating One-to-One

Transparency 1: Unit II — Communicating One-to-One
Transparency 2: Objective
Transparency 3: Sensitivity + Assertiveness
Transparency 4: Sensitivity
Transparency 5: Assertiveness
Transparency 6: Open Doors
Transparency 7: Closed Doors
Transparency 8: Passive/Assertive/Aggressive Continuum
Transparency 9: Interactive Styles

Videotape: "Murray Takes a Workshop"

Unit III. Moving In and Out and Up and Down Through Groups

Slides 39 through 60

Unit IV. Making Sense of Organizations

Slides 61 through 67

Unit V. Building Interorganizational Relations

Slides 68 through 69

Making Overhead Transparencies From the Transparency Masters

Provided with this module are masters for making transparencies to be used with an overhead projector. The transparencies can be made in one of three ways.

Method 1: Thermal Process

One of the quickest ways to make overhead transparencies is with a Thermofax copier or similar thermal machine designed for this purpose. The masters themselves, however, cannot be run through the Thermofax. Start by making good quality copies of the masters on an office copier. Then lay a piece of thermal transparency film on top of the copy and run the two sheets through the Thermofax machine together. (*Do not use acetate;* it will melt and destroy your copier.) The resulting positive transparency can be placed in a cardboard frame for durability. By using different types of film, transparencies of various colors can be made.

Method 2: Diazo Process

As in making transparencies by the Thermofax method, the first step in the diazo process is to make a high-quality copy of the transparency master. For this process, however, the copy must be translucent or transparent. The copy is placed onto a piece of diazo film and exposed in a special light box with an ultraviolet light source. After the proper exposure interval, the film is removed and processed in a jar of ammonia vapor. The completed film can be mounted in a cardboard frame. The color can be varied by using different types of diazo film.

Method 3: Film Negative Process

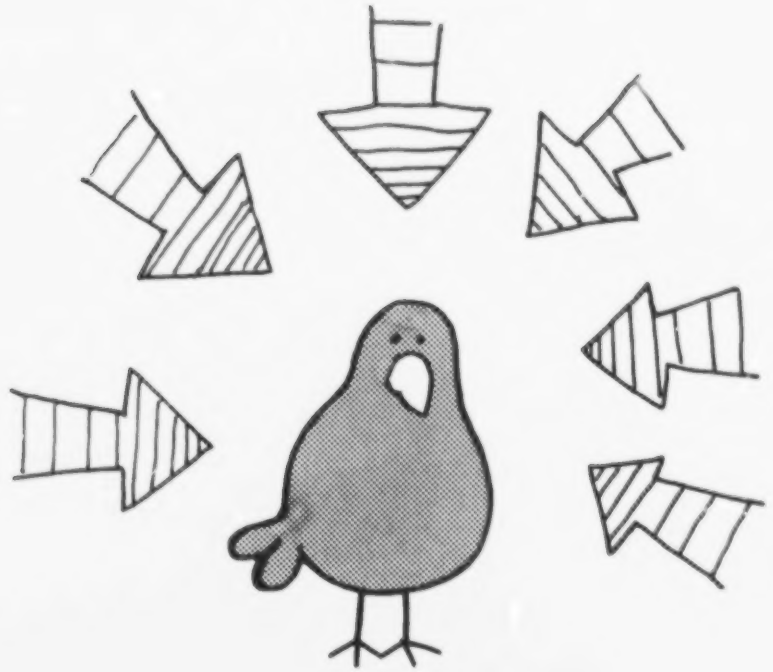
This process requires the use of a darkroom and a copy camera capable of handling large originals and negatives. No preliminary copying of the transparency masters is necessary. The masters themselves are photographed on 8 1/2-by-11-inch high-contrast line film at full size using the copy camera. After the film negative has been processed, the image will appear as clear areas on a black background. The negative can be mounted in a cardboard frame and used to project a white image on a black background or backed with an adhesive gel, such as Project-O-Film, to produce a colored image. This approach is ideal for situations in which the image is to be revealed one part at a time during projection; opaque flaps can be taped to the frame to cover the various parts of the image and can be turned back one at a time.

Unit II
Communicating One-to-One

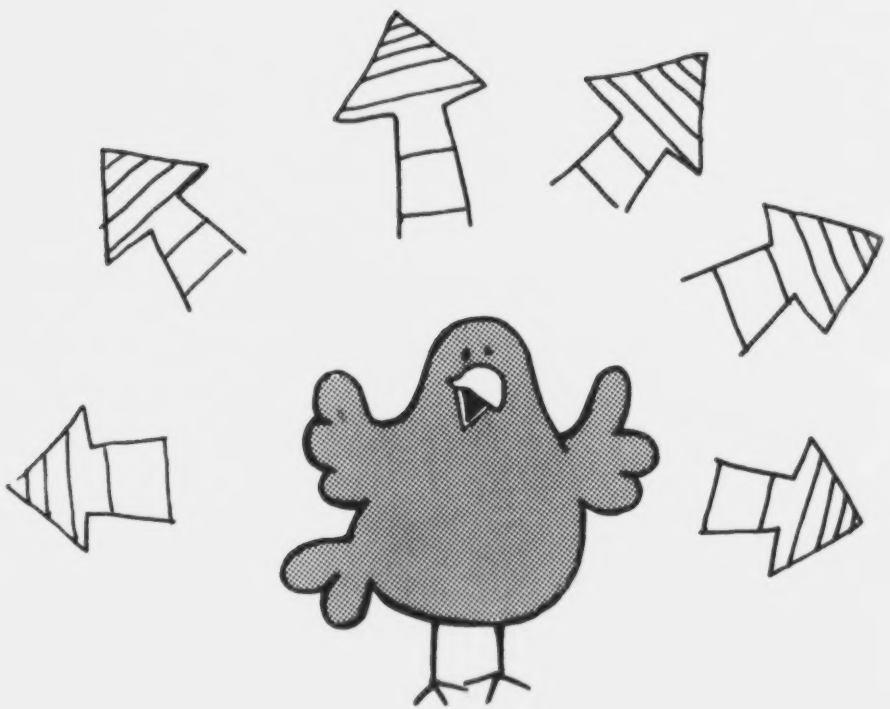
Objective:

To build interpersonal power through effective communications.

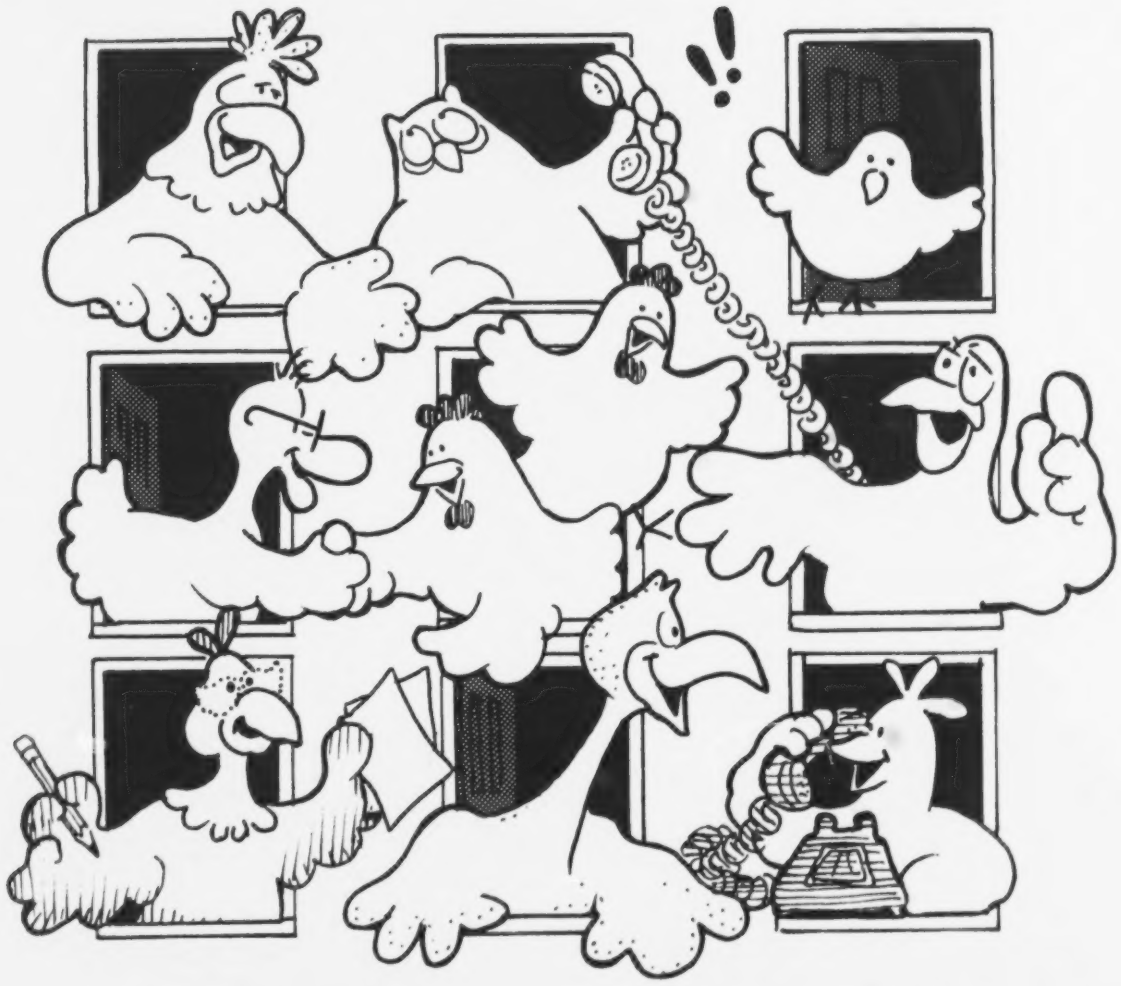
Sensitivity
& Assertiveness =
Effective Communications



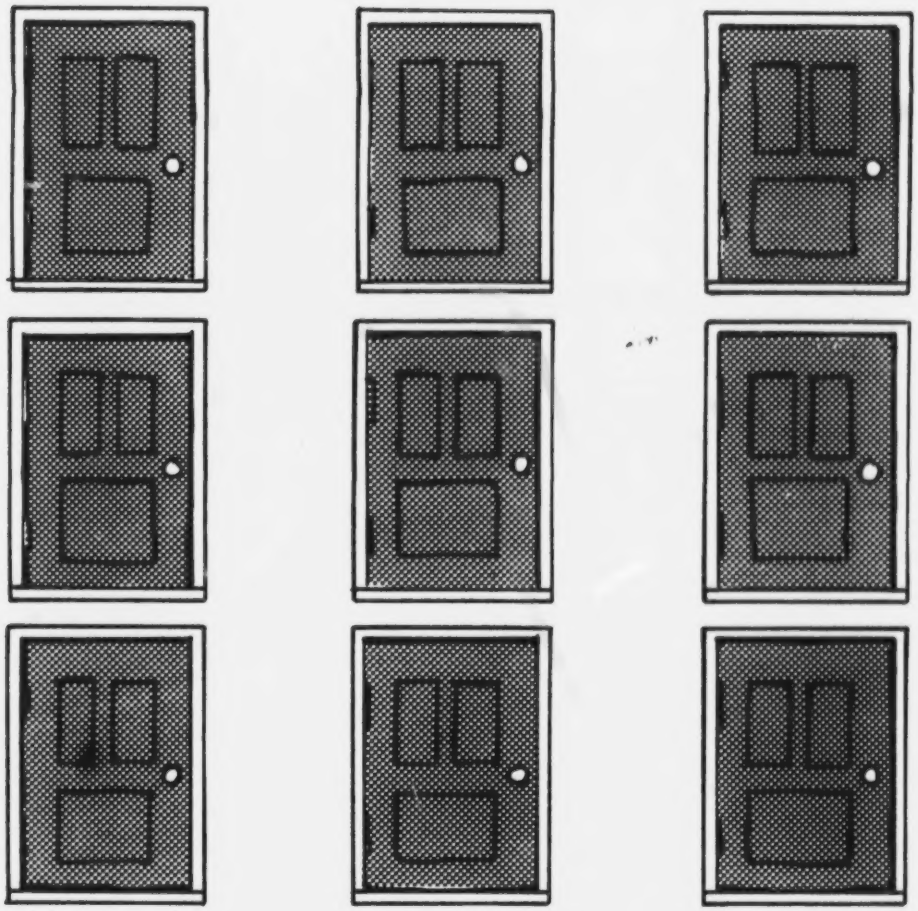
SENSITIVITY:
ABILITY TO RECEIVE MESSAGES



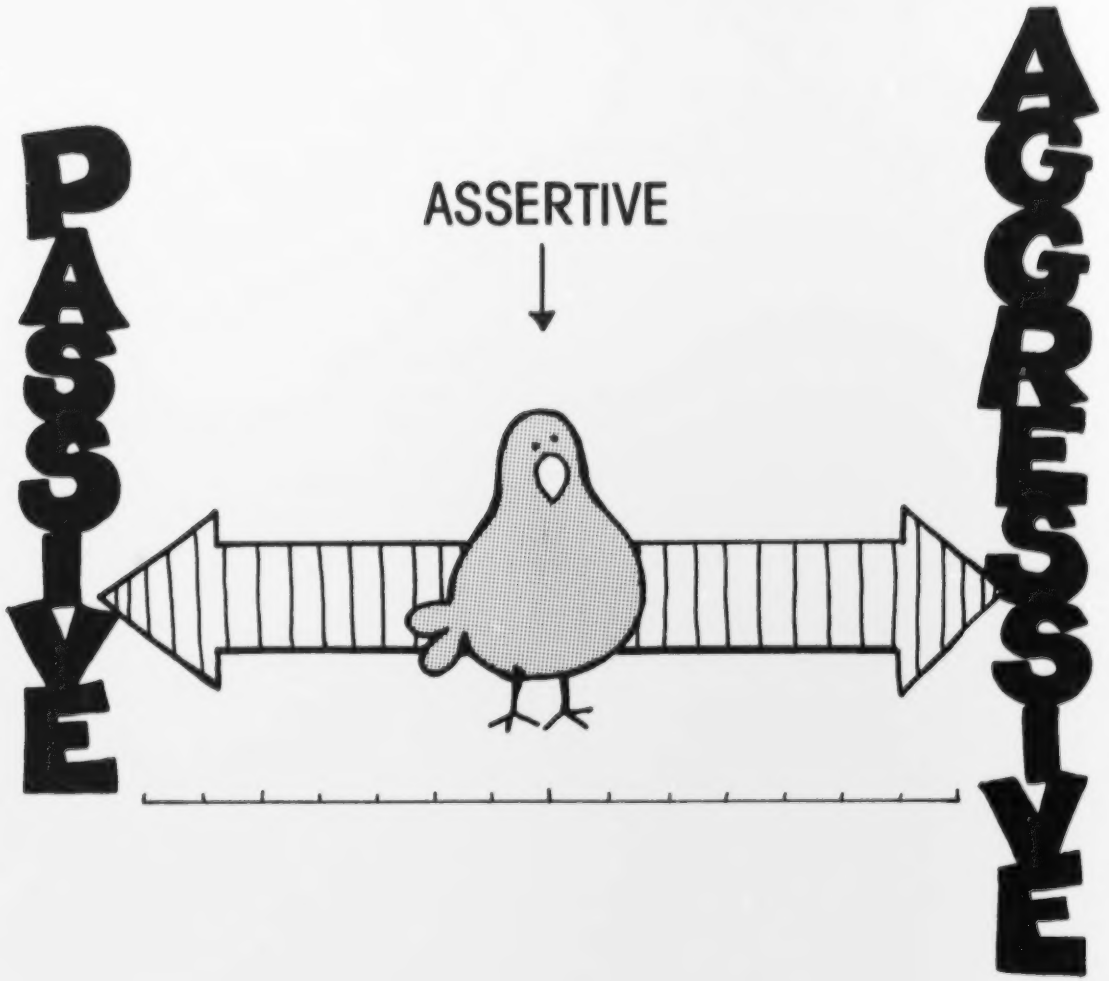
ASSERTIVENESS:
ABILITY TO SEND MESSAGES

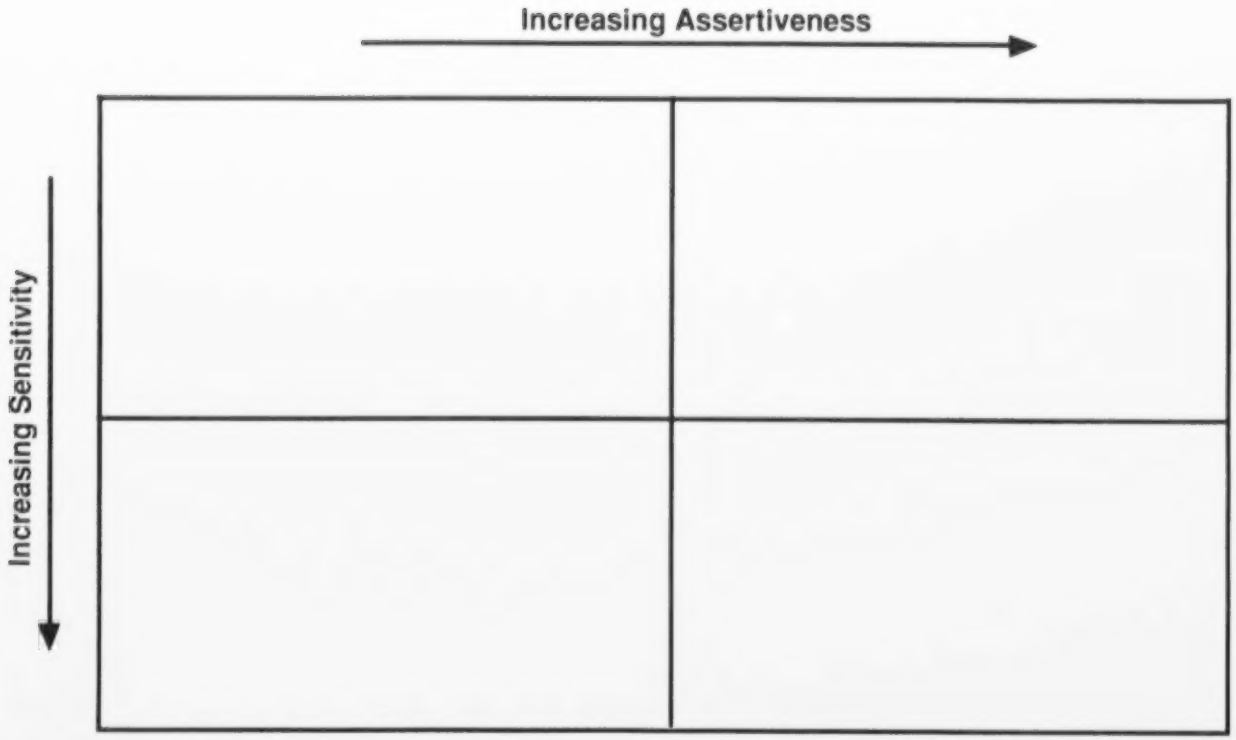


SENSITIVITY OPENS DOORS



INSENSITIVITY CLOSES DOORS


PASSIVE
ASSERTIVE
AGGRESSIVE


Increasing Assertiveness
Increasing Sensitivity